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Actual Versus Attributed Values in the Superior-Subordinate Relationship.

James Donald Powell

Louisiana State University and Agricultural & Mechanical College

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POWELL, James Donald, 1941-
ACTUAL VERSUS ATTRIBUTED VALUES IN THE
SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATE RELATIONSHIP.

The Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College,
Ph.D., 1977
Business Administration

Xerox University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106

ACTUAL VERSUS ATTRIBUTED VALUES
IN THE SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATE
RELATIONSHIP

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Management

by
James Donald Powell
B.B.A., North Texas State University, 1962
M.B.A., Ohio State University, 1967
May, 1977

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am indebted to the following faculty members for their guidance and helpful suggestions in this effort: Professors Raymond Lesikar, Michael Peters, Eugene McCann, and Alvin Burns. I especially acknowledge the patient, steady support of my chairman, Professor Herbert G. Hicks. His encouragement and management of the dissertation process have made the endeavor possible. Also, I express my appreciation to Professor David Smith for his help in statistical support for the research.

I owe a special debt to my wife, Rita, and my son, Jason. They have sacrificed much in the interest of seeing this project completed. Last, I am thankful to my parents, William Lee and Rheba Rhea Powell. Their love, reverence for learning, and personal and financial support made this experience meaningful and worthwhile.

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ABSTRACT

This research was conducted to determine the effects, if any, of certain organizational processes on the ability of subordinates to estimate their superiors' values. These organizational processes were the length of time a subordinate had worked for a superior and the organizational level (high or low) at which the superior-subordinate pair was working.

The individuals surveyed represented three public-sector organizations: a metropolitan police department, a fire department, and a state employment security department. There were 204 respondent superior-subordinate pairs, 61 representing high organizational levels and 143 representing the lowest organizational level.

Rokeach's value survey was used to measure the actual values of the superiors and the values attributed to them by their subordinates. The rank-ordering procedure in the Rokeach instrument was changed to a seven-point Likert-type scale.

The data were analyzed using analysis of variance and correlation analysis. The effects of longevity, organizational level, and the interaction of longevity and organizational level on the differences between actual and

attributed values were not found to be significant. Also, a hypothesized decrease in the absolute magnitude between superiors' values and the values attributed to them by subordinates as longevity or organizational level increased was not supported by the study.

The conclusions drawn from the study support the notion that mere acquaintanceship over time does not increase the ability of one individual to accurately gauge another's values.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Scholars in diverse disciplines have used the concept of "values" for many years in pursuing a multiplicity of themes. Philosophers were perhaps the first theorists to attempt systematic value studies.¹ Anthropologists also accorded values a central position in the history of anthropology.² DuBois, for example, developed what she considered to be the three focal values of American middle-class.³ Munch, too, found evidence of the importance of values in his study of a community that rejected industrialism because it conflicted with its traditional core values.⁴ Political

¹See Nicholas Rescher, Introduction to Value Theory (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969), Chapter 5 for a succinct summary of the philosophical tradition of value study.

²Lisa R. Peattie, "Anthropology and the Search for Values," The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, I, No. 4 (Oct.-Nov.-Dec., 1965), 361.

³Cora DuBois, "The Dominant Value Profile of American Culture," American Anthropologist, LVII, No. 6 (December, 1955), 1239.

⁴Peter A. Munch, "Economic Development and Conflicting Values: A Social Experiment in Tristan da Cunha," American Anthropologist, LXXII, No. 6 (December, 1970), 1300-18.

scientists have also used values as a basis for study. Rae, for instance, developed a strategy for selecting decision-rules that optimize the correspondence between an individual's values and policy formation by a political committee.⁵ Economics, theology, education, psychology--these are some of the other fields or disciplines where values have been accorded a prominent position.

In recent years social scientists have been particularly active in seeking to relate personal values to organizational activities. Jacob and Flink, for example, attempted to define operationally the value concept as it relates to governmental decision-making.⁶ Narrowing the frame of reference to business organizations, several contributors should be recognized. Bernthal concentrated on personal values as they affect the ethical choices of business decision-makers.⁷ Guth and Tagiuri emphasized the impact of personal values on the formation of corporate

⁵Douglas W. Rae, "Decision-Rules and Individual Values in Constitutional Choice," American Political Science Review, LXIII, No. 1 (March, 1969), 40-56.

⁶Phillip E. Jacob and James J. Flink, "Values and Their Function in Decision Making," American Behavioral Scientist, Supplement (May, 1962), 7-34.

⁷Wilmar F. Bernthal, "Value Perspectives in Management Decisions," Academy of Management Journal, V, No. 3 (December, 1962), 190-6.

strategy.⁸ Whether viewed as part of an individual's frame of reference for making ethical choices or as guides to behavior that influence the selection of alternative business or governmental strategies, values are important concepts in the study of social processes.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study is designed to explore the differences, if any, between the values attributed to public sector managers by their subordinates, and their actual values. Related to this central question are several secondary ones. For instance, does an individual's ability to judge his immediate superior's values improve the longer a subordinate works for a particular superior? And, do attributed and actual values become more nearly the same at higher organizational levels? Such an investigation is a logical extension of earlier studies that sought to specify the nature of the functioning of values in organization activities.

The linkage between individual values and behavior is examined at length in Chapter II. It is necessary here,

⁸William D. Guth and Renato Tagiuri, "Personal Values and Corporate Strategy," Harvard Business Review, XLIII, No. 5 (Sept.-Oct., 1965), 123-32; see, also, Robert Shirley, "The Emphasis of Personal Values on Corporate Strategy," Current Concepts in Management, ed. O. Jeff Harris (Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Division of Research, College of Business Administration, Louisiana State University, 1972), pp. 7-14.

however, to at least review the chain of logic that relates the present study to more general organizational functioning. The research on personal values that has been conducted in organizational settings has been related, for the most part, to decision-making processes. These processes, whether they concern strategy formulation or ethical quandaries, typically involve managers at relatively high organizational levels. The translation of these decisions to the client level, however, requires the actions of middle and lower level managers and employees. Thus, the development of coherent organizational theory requires analysis at these levels. Also, the interpersonal relationships that affect not only the decision-making but also the decision-implementing processes are crucial to the understanding of organizational functioning. Thus, the focusing of the current investigation on the superior-subordinate relationship would seem to be appropriate.

A secondary purpose of the study is to highlight the role of the perception process as it relates to the values of superiors and the estimation of these values by subordinates. Much of the research which will be described later deals with the actual values of the various "actors." Much less attention has been given to perceived values.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

To adequately examine the differences between

attributed and actual values in superior-subordinate relationships, it is necessary that individual superiors be matched with their subordinates. Such matching is difficult unless the study can be tightly controlled. For this reason the field study was selected as an appropriate mechanism for the research project.

Employees from three public sector organizations were used in the study. In order to obtain an adequate representation of public sector employees, the subjects represent a city organization (Las Vegas, Nevada Fire Department), a combined city-county organization (Las Vegas, Nevada Metropolitan Police Department), and a state organization (Nevada Employment Security Department).

The city employees represented firemen, fire captains, and fire batallion chiefs from each of the three platoons in the organization. The city-county employees were chosen from the traffic division of the Metropolitan Police Department and included all three daily shifts. The state employees represented four levels of Employment Security employees at two city offices--Las Vegas, Nevada and North Las Vegas, Nevada.

JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

Organizational theorists have attributed considerable importance to the influence of personal values on organizational activities. In Sikula's words:

The importance of value theory as a possible explanation of motivated behavior has too long been ignored. The importance of values is evident at the individual, group, and organizational levels. Underlying all interpersonal relations are the values which guide men's actions. Thus, in trying to explain why men behave as they do individually or in groups and organizations, we are inevitably led to managerial values.⁹

Connor and Becker appear to share Sikula's sentiments when they suggest that "the current state of knowledge regarding values and the organization is almost nil. . . ."¹⁰ Thus, managerial value processes would seem to be an appropriate topic for investigation.

The bulk of the research that has been accomplished on values in organizations has been focused on the private sector. Corresponding studies of public sector employees have been very limited. Rigby, for example, compared the values held by federal and non-federal employees. His study, however, was limited to attorneys at two hierarchical levels in government and industry.¹¹ Sikula compared the values and value systems of governmental executives to those of eleven other public and private career and

⁹Andrew F. Sikula, "Values and Value Systems: Importance and Relationship to Managerial and Organizational Behavior," The Journal of Psychology, LXXVIII, No. 2 (July, 1971), 281-2.

¹⁰Patrick E. Connor and Boris W. Becker, "Values and the Organization: Suggestions for Research," Academy of Management Journal, XVIII, No. 3 (September, 1975), 559.

¹¹Ronald K. Rigby, "Federal and Non-Federal Employees: A Study of Values" (unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1973).

occupational groups.¹² Sikula describes his research as being conducted on "a relatively unresearched populace--namely, governmental executives."¹³ According to Nigro and Nigro,

Public administrators bring individual sets of values and ways of seeing the world to their positions in government; their views are almost certainly expressed to some degree in the actions they take.¹⁴

Research on value structures in the superior-subordinate relationship would also seem to be a useful contribution to normative organization theory. McMurry is an advocate of the importance of values as they affect individual relationships.

Four factors are critical if the character of any superior/subordinate relationship, particularly when those involved work close to each other, is to be a good one:

- (1) The superior's technical expectations and standards must be met by the subordinate.
- (2) The superior's personal values must be relatively similar to those of his subordinate.
- (3) The subordinate's competence must not be so great as to make him a threat to his superior's job.

¹²Andrew F. Sikula, "The Values and Value Systems of Governmental Executives," Public Personnel Management, II, No. 1 (Jan.-Feb., 1973), 16-22.

¹³Ibid., p. 16.

¹⁴Felix A. Nigro and Lloyd G. Nigro, Modern Public Administration (New York: Harper and Row, 1973), p. 76.

- (4) As far as possible, the superior must meet his subordinate's expectations technically and personally, so that he is respected by him.¹⁵

McMurry's concern is with the similarity of actual value systems of superiors and subordinates. There is, however, another dimension to this relationship--that of perceived values. For while an individual acts, in part, as a result of his own value system, he also tends to condition or modify his behavior so that it is consistent with what he perceives to be the values of his superior. Hence, the perception of a superior's values is one aspect of an individual's assessment of an opportunity for action. As Presthus describes this process, "Our perception of a situation defines our behavioral limits in the sense that its speed and accuracy determine the appropriateness of the role we choose."¹⁶ Failure to accurately perceive a superior's value system and consequently, the failure to appropriately condition behavior to those values may result in misunderstanding and conflict in the superior-subordinate relationship. Thus, it is important to discover how well subordinates gauge their superior's values as well as what

¹⁵Robert N. McMurry, "Conflicts in Human Values," Harvard Business Review, XLI, No. 3 (May-June, 1963), 139.

¹⁶Robert V. Presthus, "Toward a Theory of Organizational Behavior," Administrative Science Quarterly, III, No. 1 (June, 1958), 54.

factors affect the accuracy of their judgments. The tenure of the superior-subordinate relationship is also an important aspect of the study. Laboratory experiments which involve short-term acquaintance are probably not a sufficient approximation of the work relationship. As Tagiuri has stated,

Investigations have been undertaken in which the natural dyadic process of a well-established relationship between persons is used as the context for studying interpersonal perception. . . . These, however, are still relatively rare, and more of them are needed.¹⁷

Previous studies have required individuals to gauge the values of other groups. Tagiuri compared the values that research managers, scientists, and businessmen attributed to each other, to each group's actual values.¹⁸ DeSalvia and Gemmill conducted an exploratory study which measured college students' values and then asked the students to estimate the values of business managers.¹⁹ Both studies indicated the misconceptions that exist in the perceptions of a group's values as judged by the

¹⁷Renato Tagiuri, "Person Perception," The Handbook of Social Psychology, eds. Gardner Lindzey and Elliot Aronson (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1969), p. 426.

¹⁸Renato Tagiuri, "Value Orientations and the Relationships of Managers and Scientists," Administrative Science Quarterly, X, No. 1 (June, 1965), 39-51.

¹⁹Donald N. DeSalvia and Gary R. Gemmill, "An Exploratory Study of the Personal Values Systems of College Students and Managers," Academy of Management Journal, XIV, No. 2 (June, 1971), 227-38.

members of another group. While these investigations are informative as to groups in general, it is difficult to apply the findings to specific working relationships. It is appropriate to determine whether, and to what extent, such misconceptions of values exist among individuals in superior-subordinate relationships.

In sum, the area of managerial values appears to be a fruitful area for research. England's listing of the impacts that value systems have on managers is appropriately cited:

- (1) Personal value systems influence a manager's perception of situations and problems he faces.
- (2) Personal value systems influence a manager's decisions and solutions to problems.
- (3) Personal value systems influence the way a manager looks at other individuals and groups of individuals; thus, they influence interpersonal relationships.
- (4) Personal value systems influence the perception of individual and organizational success as well as their achievement.
- (5) Personal value systems set the limits for the determination of what is and what is not ethical behavior by a manager.
- (6) Personal value systems influence the extent to which a manager will accept or will resist organizational pressures or goals.²⁰

Given the pervasive nature of values in managerial behavior,

²⁰George W. England, "Personal Value Systems of American Managers," Academy of Management Journal, X, No. 1 (March, 1967), 54.

the investigation of perceived values of superiors in the public sector should make a contribution to organizational theory.

HYPOTHESES

Based on the reasoning set forth in the previous section, the following hypotheses may be formulated:

- Hypothesis 1: The difference between a value attributed to a superior by a subordinate and the superior's actual value is not affected by the length of time subordinate has worked for superior (tenure of subordinate under superior).
- Hypothesis 2: The difference between a value attributed to a superior by a subordinate and the superior's actual value is not affected by the organizational level at which the two are located.
- Hypothesis 3: The difference between a value attributed to a superior by a subordinate and the superior's actual value is not affected by interaction between organizational level and length of time subordinate has worked for superior.
- Hypothesis 4: The absolute magnitude of the difference between a value attributed to a superior

and the superior's actual value does not decline as length of time subordinate has worked for superior increases.

Hypothesis 5: The absolute magnitude of the difference between a value attributed to a superior and the superior's actual value does not decline as organizational level increases.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The most important limitation of this study is the inability to generalize it to other organizations. Certainly the conclusions would be valid only for public sector managers, and additionally would apply only to city, county, and state government structures very similar to those of the city of Las Vegas, Clark County, and the state of Nevada.

A second limitation is related to the hierarchical positions of the respondents. Since employees at only four grade levels were surveyed, the results will only apply to positions at similar levels.

Another limitation is the inability to either explain the origins of an individual's value system or to predict what actions might be expected from an individual possessing certain values.

PREVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter II includes a review of the theoretical and empirical foundations upon which the investigation is based. In Chapter III, the study design as well as the methodology for collection and analysis are discussed. The results of the investigation are presented in Chapter IV. Chapter V is devoted to data interpretation, conclusions, and recommendations of future research directions.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL FOUNDATIONS

This chapter will include a discussion of the nature of values, the effect of values on behavior, the attempts to measure values, and the place of value theory in superior-subordinate relationships. Both theoretical and empirical support will be cited. The initial step will be to examine the concepts of "value" and "value structure."

PERSONAL VALUES AND VALUE STRUCTURES

It is first necessary to carefully delineate the meaning of the concept of "value" as it will be used in the present study. Next, the definition will be expanded to include personal value structures. Finally, it is necessary to differentiate the concept of value from other similar concepts.

Definition of Personal Values

The term "value" has over time had two principal orientations--one, as a quality that is possessed by objects; another, as a personal conception. The first orientation, for example, is characterized by Diggory when

he suggests that values be assigned to objects in terms of their utility in achieving goals.²¹ Though this theory of value assumes a human goal setter, the value is assigned to the object itself. The personal orientation of value, on the other hand, involves defining a value as "a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection of available modes, means, and ends of action."²² Though others' definitions vary slightly in wording, Kluckhohn's conception has broad currency. Fallding, for example, sees a value as being "a generalized end that guides behavior toward uniformity in a variety of situations, with the object of repeating a particular self-sufficient satisfaction."²³ Inlow describes values as being "the determiners in man that influence his choices in life and thus decide his behavior."²⁴ Köhler's succinct definition of a value is

²¹James C. Diggory, Self-Evaluation: Concepts and Studies (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 88.

²²Clyde Kluckhohn, "Values and Value-Orientations in the Theory of Action," Toward a General Theory of Action, eds. Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1951), p. 395.

²³Harold Fallding, "A Proposal for the Empirical Study of Values," American Sociological Review, XXX, No. 2 (April, 1965), 224.

²⁴Gail M. Inlow, Values in Transition: A Handbook (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1972), p. 2.

"the conviction that some things ought to be and others not."²⁵

Though other definitions of the concept of value can be cited, those above are representative of the literature. In distinguishing between value as a property of an object and as a human conception of the desirable, Williams' caveat is appropriate:

. . . we must still be careful to see the highly consequential distinction between "value" in the sense of an evaluation of an object of regard, on the one hand, and the standards by which such evaluations are made. . . .²⁶

Thus, the use of the term "value" in this study will be limited to its application as a personal concept of the desirable in situations presenting alternative choices of behavior.

Personal Value Structures

As guides to behavior, values are arranged in the human behavioral structure in a systematic manner. This arrangement has been characterized in various ways. Leys, for example, speaks of a "value framework" that consists of a set of standards, tests, or criteria that is reviewed

²⁵Wolfgang Köhler, The Place of Value in a World of Fact (New York: Meridian Books, Inc., 1959), p. 35.

²⁶Robin M. Williams, Jr., American Society: A Sociological Interpretation (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1960), p. 401.

by a decision maker in a rather orderly fashion.²⁷ England describes a "personal value system" as a "relatively permanent perceptual framework which shapes and influences the general nature of an individual's behavior."²⁸ Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck define "value orientations" as

Complex but definitely patterned (rank-ordered) principles . . . which give order and direction to the ever-flowing stream of human acts and thoughts as they relate to the solution of "common human" problems.²⁹

Senger refers to a "value structure" as "a hierarchy of competing, fundamental life directions which act as the criteria for psychological behavior."³⁰ It is significant to note the references of value theorists to the idea of hierarchy in value systems. Besides those already mentioned, Williams,³¹

²⁷Wayne A. R. Leys, "The Value Framework of Decision-Making," Concepts and Issues in Administrative Behavior, eds. Sidney Mallick and Edward H. Van Ness (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1962), p. 81.

²⁸England, "Personal Value Systems of American Managers," p. 54.

²⁹Florence R. Kluckhohn and Fred L. Strodtbeck, Variations in Value Orientations (Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson, and Co., 1961), p. 4.

³⁰John Senger, "Managers' Perceptions of Subordinates' Competence As a Function of Personal Value Orientations," Academy of Management Journal, XIV, No. 4 (December, 1971), 416.

³¹Williams, American Society, p. 403.

Rescher,³² and Bernthal³³ all include the idea of hierarchy in their discussion of values. This structuring of value systems is an important component in relating values to behavioral choices. As Rokeach states:

Such a relative conception of values enables us to define change as a reordering of priorities, and, at the same time, to see the total value system as relatively stable over time. It is stable enough to reflect the fact of sameness and continuity of a unique personality socialized within a given culture and society, yet unstable enough to permit rearrangements of value priorities as a result of changes in culture, society, and personal experience.³⁴

Hierarchy in value systems will be discussed later in the study when the construction of value measurement scales is dealt with.

DIFFERENTIATION OF PERSONAL VALUES AND RELATED CONCEPTS

Since the concept of personal values is, in common usage, often confused with other similar concepts, this section of the study will delineate the differences between values and such concepts as beliefs and attitudes.

Belief and Personal Value

A belief, stated simply, is "a conviction that

³²Nicholas Rescher, "The Study of Value Change," Value Theory in Philosophy and Social Science, eds. Ervin Laszlo and James B. Wilbur (New York: Gordon and Breach Science Publishers, 1973), p. 14.

³³Bernthal, "Value Perspectives in Management," p. 196.

³⁴Milton Rokeach, The Nature of Human Values (New York: The Free Press, 1973), p. 11.

something is real."³⁵ Scheibe refers to belief statements as "answers to questions of fact, for which individuals can use external criteria of reality."³⁶ Of course, it must be pointed out that a person's belief about or perception of reality is not synonymous with "Reality" itself.³⁷ Jacob and Flink conceive of beliefs as "existential propositions held by individual human beings regarding the structure and operation of the social and physical universe and one's place in it. . . ."³⁸ Thus, these definitions of beliefs convey a notion of fact-orientation to beliefs as opposed to the standard-orientation of values. Scheibe characterizes this distinction in the following way:

Belief statements refer to what is possible, what exists, what happened in history, what a person is, what he can do. They are framed in terms of expectancies, hypotheses, subjective probabilities, assumptive worlds, cognitive maps, and so on. Value judgments refer to what is wanted, what is best, what is desirable or preferable, what ought to be done. They suggest the operation of wishes, desires, goals, passions, valences, or morals.³⁹

³⁵Williams, American Society, p. 406.

³⁶Karl E. Scheibe, Beliefs and Values (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1970), pp. 41-2.

³⁷Ibid., p. 34; see also, Raymond V. Lesikar, Business Communication: Theory and Application (3d ed.: Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1976), p. 31.

³⁸Jacob and Flink, "Values and Their Function," p. 23.

³⁹Scheibe, Beliefs and Values, pp. 41-2.

But, it is possible, also, to closely relate the concepts of belief and value.

Rokeach differentiates between three types of beliefs.⁴⁰ The first type is a descriptive or existential belief, which can be evaluated as being true or false. The second kind of belief is termed evaluative in which the object of belief is judged to be good or bad. Lastly, the prescriptive or exhortatory belief involves evaluation of some means or end of action as desirable or undesirable. According to Rokeach, this third type of belief is a value. Thus, a value may be viewed as a particular kind of belief.

Attitude and Personal Value

Attitudes have been defined in various ways.

Allport states that

. . . an attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related.⁴¹

While this definition appears to encompass a plurality of objects and situations, Allport also supports the idea that attitudes "have a material or concept object of reference and are 'pointed' in some direction

⁴⁰ Milton Rokeach, Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1969), p. 113; see, also, Rokeach, The Nature of Human Values, pp. 6-7.

⁴¹ Gordon W. Allport, "Attitudes," A Handbook of Social Psychology, ed. Carl Murchison (New York: Russell and Russell, 1967), p. 810.

with respect to this object."⁴² This distinction is important given the tone of other definitions and the basis upon which attitudes are distinguished from values. Wagner, for instance, defines attitude as "a predisposition to behave in a particular way toward a given object."⁴³ Katz, similarly, stipulates that "an attitude is the predisposition of the individual to evaluate some symbol or object or aspect of his world in a favorable or unfavorable manner."⁴⁴ Hence, one basis for differentiation between attitudes and values becomes the breadth of focus. While an attitude refers to an orientation toward a single object, a value is oriented toward "a series or class of related objects."⁴⁵ Thus, a value may represent a collection of attitudes.⁴⁶ In England's view, a value is more "ingrained, permanent, and stable in nature" than an attitude.⁴⁷ Rokeach, in fact, sees

⁴²Ibid., p. 839.

⁴³Richard V. Wagner, "The Study of Attitude Change: An Introduction," The Study of Attitude Change, eds. Richard V. Wagner and John J. Sherwood (Belmont, Calif.: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1969), p. 2.

⁴⁴Daniel Katz, "The Functional Approach to the Study of Attitudes," Public Opinion Quarterly, XXIV, No. 2 (Summer, 1960), 168.

⁴⁵Wagner, "The Study of Attitude Change," p. 3.

⁴⁶Ibid.

⁴⁷England, "Personal Value Systems of American Managers," p. 54.

values as being determiners of attitudes.⁴⁸ In this sense of attitudes and values being on a behavioral continuum, Bonner describes an "attitude-value complex" as being a frame of reference for an individual's behavior.⁴⁹

In general terms, then a value is conceptually different from an attitude by the fact that it transcends specific objects and situations. Values relate to "modes of conduct and end-states of existence."⁵⁰ The following section will clarify more precisely the link between personal values and behavior.

THE EFFECTS OF PERSONAL VALUES ON BEHAVIOR

To this point, the term value has been operationally defined and also has been differentiated from such related concepts as beliefs and attitudes. In this section the effects of personal values on human behavior are discussed.

General Value-Behavior Links

Rokeach describes values as guiding ongoing

⁴⁸Rokeach, Beliefs, Attitudes and Values, p. 157.

⁴⁹Hubert Bonner, "Scientific Assumptions and Human Values," Values in an Age of Confrontation, ed. Jeremiah W. Canning (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1970), p. 52.

⁵⁰Milton Rokeach, "A Theory of Organization and Change Within Value-Attitude Systems," Journal of Social Issues, XXIV, No. 1 (January, 1968), 16.

activities as well as giving expression to human needs.⁵¹ This rather generalized link between values and behavior is also supported by Baier.⁵² Rescher conceives of a value as being a "disposition-cluster" that "orients itself in two directions: both that of discourse and that of overt action."⁵³ Sikula suggests a values-behavior link, but believes that such a link may often involve personal goals as an intervening variable.⁵⁴

Specific Value-Behavior Links

There is also a body of literature that relates values to more specific behavioral contexts and situations. Scheibe, for example, describes a situation whereby an extremely wealthy or powerful individual's behavior is virtually unfettered by the constraints that affect society in general. Under such conditions, "If a being can do absolutely anything, its behavior will follow directly from its values."⁵⁵ This notion can presumably be

⁵¹Rokeach, The Nature of Human Values, p. 12.

⁵²Kurt Baier, "The Concept of Values," Value Theory in Philosophy and Social Science, eds. Ervin Laszlo and James B. Wilbur (New York: Gordon and Breach Science Publishers, 1973), p. 1.

⁵³Rescher, "The Study of Value Change," p. 13.

⁵⁴Andrew F. Sikula, "Values and Value Systems: Relationship to Personal Goals," Personnel Journal, L, No. 4 (April, 1971), 312.

⁵⁵Scheibe, Beliefs and Values, p. 64.

generalized to other situations where one's behavior is not being monitored by others with punitive capabilities.

Another, more specific relationship between values and behavior is seen in organization and administrative theory. Sikula emphasizes the importance of value theory in explaining and analyzing interpersonal relations at group and organizational levels.⁵⁶ Nigro and Nigro describe the impact of values on administrative processes in this manner:

The values that guide administrative purposes and influence the selection of organizational methods are, therefore, fundamental and deeply rooted elements of virtually all administrative activities. When they are translated into action, values can and do have a significant and sometimes critical impact on the nature and quality of our physical, psychological, and social life.⁵⁷

Thus, the connection between values and behavior may have individual as well as organizational ramifications.

Still another specific type of value-behavior link concerns the area of decision-making. England stipulates that "an individual manager's personal value system makes a difference in terms of how he evaluates information, how he arrives at decisions. . . ."⁵⁸ Rokeach describes value systems as "general plans employed to resolve conflicts

⁵⁶Sikula, "Values and Value Systems: Importance and Relationship," p. 281.

⁵⁷Nigro and Nigro, Modern Public Administration, p. 53.

⁵⁸England, "Personal Value Systems of American Managers," p. 53.

and to make decisions."⁵⁹ Sisk refers to the ability of an individual to compromise as being a function of his personal values.⁶⁰ But, more specifically, value judgments are often made in particular kinds of decision situations. In Harrison's words,

. . . one finds more value judgments in nonroutine than routine decisions; in nonrecurring than in recurring decisions; and in decisions where the outcome has a high degree of uncertainty rather than in choices that have lesser amounts of risk. . . .⁶¹

A last area of value-behavior relationship is that of ethics. Of course, the ethical considerations inherent in a situation may be viewed as just another input to the decision process. As they relate to preferences for the desirable or good, however, values seem a particularly appropriate influence for analysis in the making of ethical choices. Baumhart portrays a direct link between ethical behavior and the influence of an individual's values.⁶² In Sisk's words, ". . . one's concept of what is or is

⁵⁹Rokeach, The Nature of Human Values, p. 12.

⁶⁰Henry L. Sisk, Management and Organization (Cincinnati, Ohio: Southwestern Publishing Co., 1973), p. 78.

⁶¹E. Frank Harrison, The Managerial Decision-Making Process (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1975), p. 120.

⁶²Raymond C. Baumhart, "How Ethical Are Businessmen?" Harvard Business Review, XXXIX, No. 4 (July-August, 1961), 19.

not ethical behavior is determined largely by his personal value system."⁶³

Thus, the conclusion of this section of the study is that values and value systems do affect behavior in both general and specific dimensions and contexts. The next topic of consideration will be the attempts that have been made to measure human values.

ATTEMPTS TO MEASURE VALUES

The interest of scholars in the subject of human values has led quite logically to attempts to measure these values. This section of the chapter will examine these measurement attempts.

Robinson and Shaver list twelve different instruments that theorists have developed to measure values.⁶⁴ In spite of the fact that numerous value scales have been devised, however, only a relative few have seen widespread usage.

Study of Values

The Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values,⁶⁵ which

⁶³Sisk, Management and Organization, p. 78.

⁶⁴John P. Robinson and Phillip R. Shaver, Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan, 1973), pp. 503-86.

⁶⁵Gordon W. Allport, Phillip E. Vernon, and Gardner Lindzey, Study of Values (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1960).

was originally developed in 1931, was and remains, a highly popular instrument.⁶⁶ The Study of Values attempts to categorize an individual's basic orientation in terms of the following dimensions: Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political, and Religious. These dimensions may be expanded as follows:

1. The theoretical man most values the discovery of truth. He is empirical, critical, and rational, aiming to order and systematize his knowledge.
2. The economic man most values that which is useful. He is interested in practical affairs, especially those of business, judging things by their tangible utility.
3. The aesthetic man most values beauty and harmony. He is concerned with grace and symmetry, finding fulfillment in artistic experiences.
4. The social man most values altruistic and philanthropic love. He is kind, sympathetic, unselfish, valuing other men as ends in themselves.
5. The political man most values power and influence. He seeks leadership, enjoying competition and struggle.
6. The religious man most values unity. He seeks communion with the cosmos, mystically relating to its wholeness.⁶⁷

⁶⁶William F. Dukes, "Psychological Studies of Values," Psychological Bulletin, LII, No. 1 (January, 1955), 26, 34. For a recent use of this instrument, see Peter Wright, "The Effects of Personal Value Structures on Decision-Making: A Study of the Relationship Between Values and Decisions of University Business Administration Students" (unpublished PhD dissertation, Louisiana State University, 1975).

⁶⁷Robinson and Shaver, Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes, p. 503.

Each of these dimensions is present in every individual. However, the intensity of each dimension is a function of each individual's personality structure. The Study of Values is designed to measure the relative intensity of the six dimensions.

As a candidate for use in the present investigation, the Study of Values has several shortcomings. At least one critic has observed that the instrument actually only measures interests, not values.⁶⁸ Another has claimed that the scale "fails to make clear the intensity of value commitments and the idiographic nature of personal value activity."⁶⁹ Robinson and Shaver mention the difficulty of the test's vocabulary and the fact that the instrument was standardized primarily on college students in liberal arts.⁷⁰

Personal Values Questionnaire

England's Personal Values Questionnaire is another popular value-measuring instrument.⁷¹ This questionnaire

⁶⁸Fallding, "A Proposal for the Empirical Study," p. 226.

⁶⁹Orlo Strunk, Jr., "Personal Values and Self Theory," Values in an Age of Confrontation, ed. Jeremiah W. Canning (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1970), p. 69.

⁷⁰Robinson and Shaver, Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes, pp. 504-5.

⁷¹England, "Personal Value Systems of American Managers," pp. 53-68.

measures the importance that a person attaches to 66 concepts classified under the following categories: Goals of Business Organizations, Personal Goals of Individuals, Groups of People, Ideas Associated with People, and Ideas about General Topics. The Personal Values Questionnaire uses four dimensions on which respondents indicate their rating of the concepts:

1. Important (Primary mode)
2. Successful (Secondary mode)
3. Right (Secondary mode)
4. Pleasant (Secondary mode)

England characterizes the relation between the concepts and orientations in this manner:

. . . the behavior of a manager, insofar as behavior is a function of values, is best indicated by the joint function of those concepts he considers important and those concepts which fit his primary orientation. For a pragmatically oriented manager, behavior is best predicted by those concepts considered important and successful; for a morally-ethically oriented manager, behavior is best predicted by those concepts considered important and right; while for an affect-oriented manager, behavior is best predicted by those concepts considered important and pleasant.⁷²

England's value scale has been used cross-culturally⁷³

⁷²Ibid., p. 58.

⁷³George W. England, "Personal Value Systems and Expected Behavior of Managers--A Comparative Study in Japan, Korea, and the United States," Management Research: A Cross-Cultural Perspective, ed. Desmond Graves (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1973), pp. 25-48.

and in a limited way in the public sector.⁷⁴ For purposes of the current investigation, however, it was felt that the number of concepts that relate only to private sector employees disqualified the Personal Values Questionnaire from consideration.

Value Survey

The Rokeach Value Survey⁷⁵ is currently probably the most widely used instrument for measuring values. This survey requires an individual to rank two sets of values, each set containing 18 individual values.⁷⁶ One set is designated "terminal values" and represents end-states of existence. The other grouping is termed "instrumental values" and represents modes of conduct. Respondents are asked to rank the two sets in terms of the values' importance in their lives. Thus, the survey attempts to measure the structure of a person's value hierarchy.

The Rokeach Value Survey has been used in a variety of situations, as will be discussed later in this chapter. It is generally considered to be both

⁷⁴George W. England, "Personal Value Systems of Managers and Administrators," Academy of Management Proceedings, ed. Thad B. Green and Dennis F. Ray (Mississippi State University, 1974), pp. 81-8.

⁷⁵Rokeach, The Nature of Human Values, Chapter 2

⁷⁶See Chapter III and the Appendix of this study for the specific features of this instrument.

reliable and valid.⁷⁷ According to Connor and Becker,

Probably the best methodological approach to assessing values in organizations is the use of profiles and profile analyses. Thus, the average significance attached to a particular value by a set of organizational members may be viewed and assessed in relation to the significance attached by them to other selected values. Top management, for example, or middle management in small-batch organizations, or some other such member set may be characterized by a profile of value emphases. This profile then may be used in profile analytic tests of hypotheses concerning values.⁷⁸

Thus, for reasons of its advantages and its competitors' shortcomings, the Rokeach Value Survey is the instrument of choice in the current investigation. Details of its use will be discussed in Chapter III.

The next section of the chapter involves a discussion of the organizational focus of the study--namely, the superior-subordinate relationship.

THE SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATE RELATIONSHIP

The superior-subordinate relationship is a multi-dimensional one. In one sense, this relationship is affected by the same forces that affect any behavioral interchange between two individuals. But, the superior-

⁷⁷Robinson and Shaver, Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes, p. 547 and R. Cochrane and Milton Rokeach, "Rokeach's Value Survey: A Methodological Note," Journal of Experimental Research in Personality, IV (Fall, 1969), 159-61.

⁷⁸Connor and Becker, "Values and the Organization," p. 555.

subordinate relationship is much more than mere interpersonal activity. Overlaid on the simpler relationship are more complex levels of interaction. For example, the fact that the superior is in some sense a repository and a conveyor of the organization's values and expectations affects the relationship. Likewise, the requirement that the superior formally evaluate the subordinate also affects the quality of the interaction between them. Still another facet of this relationship is the effect that the continued tenure of the relationship has on the nature of the interaction of superior and subordinate. This section of the study gives attention to each of these aspects of the superior-subordinate relationship.

Influence of Superiors on Subordinates

The literature on the superior-subordinate relationship is, in the writer's estimate, biased in the downward direction. That is to say, most studies examine the relationship from the point of view of the superior. Miles, for example, examined managers' perception of their subordinates' capabilities.⁷⁹ In a study reported by O'Reilly, ". . . supervisors appeared to have little knowledge of the skills/knowledge which their subordinates

⁷⁹Raymond E. Miles, "Conflicting Elements in Managerial Ideologies," Industrial Relations, IV, No. 3 (October, 1964), 77-91.

possessed or believed themselves to possess."⁸⁰ Certainly in terms of the influence that one has over the other, the superior is in the dominant position. Such influence can, in fact, have serious implications. Baumhart, in his study of business ethics, found that executives attribute their unethical actions to their superiors' influence as well as the industry's ethical climate.⁸¹ Elbing and Elbing support the idea that values, and thus ethics, are developed in part through the praise and punishment of authority figures.⁸² Burke investigated the impact of supervisor rejection or discouragement of disagreement on subordinates' satisfaction.⁸³ Thus, the literature stressing the superior's role in the superior-subordinate relationship is abundant. Schein exemplifies the breadth of the effects that superiors have on subordinates in his discussion of management development:

⁸⁰A. P. O'Reilly, "The Supervisor and His Subordinate's Self-Actualization," Personnel Psychology, XXVI, No. 1 (Spring, 1973), 84.

⁸¹Baumhart, "How Ethical Are Businessmen," p. 19.

⁸²Alvar O. Elbing and Carol J. Elbing, The Value Issue of Business (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 201.

⁸³Ronald J. Burke, "The Methods of Resolving Superior-Subordinate Conflict: The Constructive Use of Subordinate Differences and Disagreements," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, V, No. 4 (July, 1970), 393-411.

At the interpersonal level, the most fundamental force toward growth is the pressure which an individual's immediate supervisor puts upon him to develop new skills, gain a broader point of view, and change his attitudes. This pressure is communicated in many ways: in the day-to-day interaction between the supervisor and his subordinate (in which subtle rewards and confirmations follow appropriate behavior and are withheld or replaced by punishment for inappropriate behavior, and by implication, for inappropriate perceptions and attitudes which lie behind them); in the somewhat more formal setting of performance appraisal in which strengths and weaknesses are pointed out and desired directions of change indicated; in the general emphasis which is placed on growth and development as a prerequisite for getting ahead in the company; and in the various coaching and counseling efforts undertaken by a supervisor.⁸⁴

An important dimension of the superior-subordinate relationship, which Schein briefly alluded to above, is the role of perception. The next section of the study will examine this concept more closely.

Perception in the Superior-Subordinate Relationship

According to Presthus, ". . . perception is the process of becoming acquainted with the environment. . . ." ⁸⁵
An individual's perception of a situation defines his "behavioral limits" by helping him to choose an appropriate

⁸⁴ Edgar H. Schein, "Forces Which Undermine Management Development," California Management Review, V, No. 4 (Summer, 1963), 26.

⁸⁵ Robert V. Presthus, "Toward a Theory of Organizational Behavior," Administrative Science Quarterly, III, No. 1 (June, 1958), 54.

role.⁸⁶ Thus, a person does not react to what "is," but what he perceives, in a given situation.⁸⁷ Lawler stresses the importance of superiors and subordinates developing shared perceptions of how the subordinate's job should be done.⁸⁸ He suggests that such mutual perceptions can be accomplished by having both superior and subordinate develop job descriptions for the latter's job. By ranking the job elements independently, and then comparing each other's rankings, differences in perceptions can be identified and discussed.⁸⁹ Gerstein advocates a similar approach for situations where subordinates are assigned new supervisors. He recommends the use of a Perception and Preference Inventory as a means for identifying a person's perceptions, preferences, and values. Superiors and subordinates would complete the inventory and, in group session, discuss the results.⁹⁰ Thus, the "shakedown" period of the new relationship would be shortened.

A number of empirical studies support the importance

⁸⁶ Ibid.

⁸⁷ Elbing and Elbing, The Value Issue, p. 197.

⁸⁸ Edward E. Lawler, III, "Job Attitudes and Employee Motivation: Theory, Research, and Practice," Personnel Psychology, XXIII, No. 2 (Summer, 1970), 223-37.

⁸⁹ Ibid.

⁹⁰ Alan M. Gerstein, "Exorcising Managerial Ghosts," Personnel, XLVIII, No. 6 (Nov.-Dec., 1971), 26-30.

of perception in interpersonal situations. These will be reviewed next.

Empirical Support for the Role
of Perception in Inter-
personal Relationships

Several interesting studies have pointed out the effect of perception on interacting individuals as well as the effect of organizational processes on perception. Postman, Bruner, and McGinnies conducted experiments which point out the effect of personal values on perception.⁹¹ They cite three mechanisms by which an individual's value orientation operates: perceptual sensitization to valued stimuli, perceptual defense against inimical stimuli, and value resonance or response for valued items even when they are absent from the immediate environment.⁹² Fensterheim and Tresselt studied the influence of an individual's value system upon his perception of people. Their findings indicate that individuals attribute values closer to their own to people that they like.⁹³

Relating interpersonal attraction, perception, and

⁹¹Leo Postman, Jerome S. Bruner, and Elliot McGinnies, "Personal Values as Selective Factors in Perception," The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XLIII, No. 2 (April, 1948), 142-54.

⁹²Ibid., p. 94.

⁹³Herbert Fensterheim and M. E. Tresselt, "The Influence of Value Systems on the Perception of People," The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XLVIII, No. 1 (January, 1953), 98.

value systems, Beech found that the more a person perceives another to be similar to himself, the more likely he is to be attracted to that individual.⁹⁴ Beech also suggested that value system similarity becomes increasingly important as interacting persons become increasingly well acquainted with each other. Beech's study indicates results similar to those that were reported earlier by Newcomb. Newcomb found support for his prediction that respondents would estimate a greater degree of value agreement with highly attractive others than with less attractive others.⁹⁵ Newcomb also addresses the effect of continued acquaintance on perceived orientations in stating:

. . . following any opportunity for reciprocal scanning--even a brief one on early acquaintance--there is apt to be some delineation on the part of the interacting persons of the area of mutually shared orientations--of at least some small sector about which they agree that they agree or disagree. With repeated opportunities for reciprocal scanning, the lines of delineation become increasingly clear; as each of the interacting persons becomes more certain of just what its confines are--as they become more sure of a larger area of agreements and disagreements--they "know" each other--including each others' orientations--increasingly well.⁹⁶

Evans found specific confirmation of Newcomb's findings in

⁹⁴Robert P. Beech, "Value Systems, Attitudes, and Interpersonal Attraction" (unpublished PhD dissertation, Michigan State University, 1967).

⁹⁵Theodore M. Newcomb, The Acquaintance Process (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961), p. 52.

⁹⁶Ibid., p. 261.

his study of leadership behavior. He found more agreement between the perceptions of the work group and the supervisor concerning the supervisor's consideration style of leadership when the work group members had been in the same job for a longer period of time.⁹⁷ In a study by Bieri, interaction by individuals in groups where experiences and preferred activities were discussed resulted in members perceiving their partners as more similar to themselves.⁹⁸

Thus, it can be seen that perception is an important factor in interpersonal relationships and that perceptions of others' orientations--including value orientations--are affected by the longevity of the relationship.

Next it is appropriate to review the empirical studies that have highlighted various aspects of personal values as they affect groups of individuals and organizational processes.

A REVIEW OF RELEVANT EMPIRICAL STUDIES

The empirical studies not already discussed to this

⁹⁷ Martin G. Evans, "Leadership Behavior: Demographic Factors and Agreement Between Subordinate and Self-Descriptions," Personnel Psychology, XXV, No. 4 (Winter, 1972), 649-53.

⁹⁸ James Bieri, "Changes in Interpersonal Perceptions Following Social Interaction," The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, XLVIII, No. 1 (January, 1953), 61-6.

point seem to reflect two primary emphases: values in relation to particular groups and values in relation to organizational or administrative processes. Each of these emphases will be examined in turn.

Values and Groups

A major thrust of the heightened interest in values as important behavioral components has been their operation in the activities of various groups.

Senger analyzed executive value structures and their influence on organizational decisions.⁹⁹ He found relationships between personal values and policy-type decisions. Additionally, his study indicated a significant correlation between the similarity of superior-subordinate values and high ratings given to subordinates. Senger also found differences between subclasses of executives, e.g., presidents' values differing from vice-presidents', and engineering managers' values differing from the values of land department managers.

Sikula, reporting similar results, found in his study of 57 industrial personnel managers that, in relation to other managerial groups, the personnel managers gave higher priority to the following Rokeach Value Survey values: Ambitious, Forgiving, Inner Harmony,

⁹⁹John David Senger, "An Analysis of Executive Value Structures" (unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Illinois, 1965).

and Wisdom.¹⁰⁰ Comparing the outcome of the personnel manager study to results of his past investigations, Sikula stated:

Managers in general and personnel managers specifically attach considerably more priority to competency values (such as Wisdom, Logical, Intellectual) and to initiative values (such as Imaginative, Courageous, and A Sense of Accomplishment) than do industrial workers. These same managers relatively consider security values (such as Family Security, National Security, Comfortable Life) and decorum values (such as Polite, Obedient, and Clean) to be much lower in preference than do industrial workers.¹⁰¹

Continuing with the management-worker values comparison mode, another study is of interest. England, Agarwal, and Trevisi compared the value systems of union leaders and managers.¹⁰² Their findings indicated that the value systems of the two groups were significantly different in that union leaders tend to be moralistic while managers tend to have a more pragmatic orientation.

¹⁰⁰ Andrew F. Sikula, "The Values and Value Systems of Industrial Personnel Managers," Public Personnel Management, II, No. 4 (July-August, 1973), 308. For a similar study on another managerial group, see Chan K. Hahn and John Vana, "Values, Value Systems, and Behavior of Purchasing Managers," Journal of Purchasing, IX, No. 1 (February, 1973), 15-27.

¹⁰¹ Sikula, "Values and Value Systems of Industrial Personnel Managers," pp. 307-8.

¹⁰² George W. England, Naresh C. Agarwal, and Robert E. Trevisi, "Union Leaders and Managers: A Comparison of Value Systems," Industrial Relations, X, No. 2 (May, 1971), 211-26.

Interestingly enough, however, those union leaders who were more pragmatically oriented (i.e., those whose value orientation most resembled that of managers) tended to occupy higher union positions than more moralistic members.¹⁰³

Among other studies aimed at differentiating among various executive groups is one by Cook that examined the value profiles of women executives.¹⁰⁴ Using England's measurement scale Cook found that women have a value system distinctive from that of men, and women executives can generally be classified as pragmatic. Slaughter, in another application of England's Personal Values Questionnaire, examined the value systems of banking managers.¹⁰⁵ His investigation revealed no significant differences in the value systems of these managers that correlated with either their age or their position. Watson compared 64 black and 64 white managers, using England's Personal

¹⁰³Ibid., p. 226.

¹⁰⁴Suzanne M. H. Cook, "Personal Value Profile of Selected Women Executives" (unpublished PhD dissertation, Texas Tech University, 1973).

¹⁰⁵William S. Slaughter, "A Study of Personal Value Systems of Managers in the Banking Industry as Related to Age and Position" (unpublished PhD dissertation, Louisiana State University, 1973).

Values Questionnaire.¹⁰⁶ No significant difference in the value systems of these managers was found. Simonds used the Rokeach Value Survey to demonstrate the uniqueness of the value systems of managers of Chambers of Commerce.¹⁰⁷ It is his contention that the distinctive nature of the values of members of various occupational groups can be used advantageously in guidance and selection programs.

Another group of investigations focused, at least in part, on student values. Using the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, Jacobson found senior-level business students to rank highest on economic, political, and theoretical values.¹⁰⁸ His results indicate a significant decline in authoritarian and religious values, and that the future businessman will probably be more entrepreneurial and less bureaucratic. Gorman, utilizing Rokeach's Value Survey, found overall homogeneity of value rankings among college students, faculty, and administra-

¹⁰⁶ John G. Watson, "An Analysis of the Self-Concept, Personal Values, and Levels of Achievement Motivation of Black and White Managers" (unpublished PhD dissertation, St. Louis University, 1974).

¹⁰⁷ Rollin H. Simonds, "Value Systems for Vocational Guidance and Personnel Selection: Managers of Chambers of Commerce," Academy of Management Proceedings, ed. William F. Glueck (University of Missouri, 1974), p. 37.

¹⁰⁸ George H. Jacobson, "An Examination of Possible Changes in Authoritarianism, Values, and Cognitive Complexity, with Their Implications for Business" (unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Southern California, 1974).

tors.¹⁰⁹ Fitzgerald compared the values of businessmen, business teachers, and business students.¹¹⁰ Among other findings, she indicates that business administration faculty and students are generally more ready than the other groups to change prevailing rules and attitudes.

Thus, empirical tests of the value systems of various groups have shown some similarities, but many more differences. It would seem, then, that value differences may be a key element in the behavioral diversity that creates both problems and opportunities in organizational settings. The next group of studies to be reviewed relate to organizational and administrative processes as they are affected by personal values.

Values and Organizational/ Administrative Processes

A body of research exists that highlights the role of values in influencing organizational and administrative processes. Kashefi-Zihagh, for example, found that effective organizations and individuals had distinctly different value systems than did ineffective organizations

¹⁰⁹Patrick C. M. Gorman, "A Study of Terminal and Instrumental Values of Administrators, Faculty and Undergraduate Students at the University of Northern Colorado" (unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, 1974).

¹¹⁰Patricia A. Fitzgerald, "Values of Businessmen, Business Teachers, and Business Students" (unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, 1974).

and individuals.¹¹¹ Having used Rokeach's Value Survey, Kashefi-Zihagh identified the following values as being interrelated with organizational effectiveness: A Sense of Accomplishment, Social Recognition, Ambitious, Broad-minded, Capable, Imaginative, Independent, Intellectual, Logical, Courageous, and Responsible. Shaner, in his investigation in the hospitality industry, found that the values of Honest and Responsible, were associated with managers in effective units.¹¹² He also found that varying organizational climate did not affect value rankings of managers. Jacox attempted to relate organization goals to managerial values.¹¹³ His findings indicate that goals and values were significantly related, but that goals could not be used to effectively predict managerial values. Manley also found that managerial value systems and organizational goals were related in his study of New

¹¹¹Mojtaba Kashefi-Zihagh, "An Empirical Investigation of the Relationship Between Value Systems and Organizational Effectiveness" (unpublished PhD dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970).

¹¹²Michael C. Shaner, "The Relationship Between Personal Values, Organizational Climate, and Organizational Effectiveness: A Study of the Hospitality Industry" (unpublished PhD dissertation, University of South Carolina, 1974).

¹¹³Gordon L. Jacox, "Managerial Values and Organizational Goals" (unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Utah, 1972).

York Telephone.¹¹⁴ In a study related to administration, Magistrale argued for the inclusion of worker and client values in administrative theory.¹¹⁵

Other organizational processes are also affected by personal values. Sikula, for example, investigated the role of values in conflict situations.¹¹⁶ He found that some values were more important than others as characteristics of conflict and nonconflict situations. Starck showed a relationship between values and information source preferences.¹¹⁷ His results confirmed that interpersonal sources of information were preferred to impersonal sources in providing information useful in striving toward value-directed goals.¹¹⁸

¹¹⁴Thomas R. Manley, "Personal Value Systems of Managers and the Operative Goals of the Organizations: An In-Depth Analysis of One Firm" (unpublished PhD dissertation, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, 1972).

¹¹⁵Victor J. Magistrale, "Values and Valuation in Administrative Theories" (unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Southern California, 1973).

¹¹⁶Andrew F. Sikula, "A Study of the Values and Value Systems of College Roommates in Conflict and Non-conflict Situations, and an Investigation to Determine Whether Roommate Conflict Can Be Attributed to Differing Values and Value Systems" (unpublished PhD dissertation, Michigan State University, 1970).

¹¹⁷Kenneth Starck, "Values and Information Source Preferences," The Journal of Communication, XXIII, No. 1 (March, 1973), 74-85.

¹¹⁸Ibid., p. 74.

SUMMARY

The term "value" may refer to a quality that is possessed by objects or to a personal conception of the desirable. The latter is the most useful in relating an individual's values to behavioral choices. Personal values are arranged in a hierarchical fashion in the human behavioral structure.

A personal value differs from a belief in that beliefs are fact-oriented while values are standard-oriented. Alternatively, a value may be viewed as a particular kind of belief. A value differs from an attitude in one sense by its breadth of focus. An attitude refers to an orientation toward a single object, while a value is oriented toward a series of related objects. Thus, a value may represent a collection of attitudes. Also, in terms of intensity, a value is perhaps more ingrained or permanent than an attitude. Values may, in fact, be determiners of attitudes.

Values affect behavior in both general and specific dimensions. They guide ongoing activities, give expression to human needs, and influence both discourse and overt action. In specific terms, values guide behavior in situations where behavior is unaffected by either societal constraints or monitoring by those with punitive capabilities. Value theory helps in explaining

and analyzing interpersonal relations at group and organizational levels. Values affect the decision-making process by conditioning data input, helping in conflict resolution, and aiding the process of compromise. Lastly, values are important influences in the making of ethical choices.

There have been numerous value measurement scales developed, but only a few have seen widespread use. The Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, developed in 1931, attempts to categorize an individual's basic orientation in terms of the following dimensions: Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political, and Religious. Among the instrument's shortcomings are: (1) it may measure interests rather than values; (2) it doesn't measure value intensity; (3) the test vocabulary is difficult; and (4) the instrument was standardized primarily on college students in liberal arts.

England's Personal Values Questionnaire, another popular instrument, measures the importance that a person attaches to 66 concepts classified under the following categories: Goals of Business Organizations, Personal Goals of Individuals, Groups of People, Ideas Associated with People, and Ideas about General Topics. The number of concepts that relate only to the private sector limits the use of England's instrument in the public sector.

The Rokeach Value Survey, a widely used instrument,

requires an individual to rank two sets of 18 individual values. One set, designated "terminal values" represents end-states of existence. The other, termed "instrumental values" represents modes of conduct. This instrument has been used in a variety of situations and is generally considered to be both reliable and valid.

The superior-subordinate relationship is conditioned in part by the evaluation responsibilities of the superior and the length of tenure of the relationship. Most of the literature on this relationship has centered on the point of view of the superior.

An important dimension of the superior-subordinate relationship is the role of perception. Superiors and subordinates should develop shared perceptions of how the subordinate's job should be done. They should also develop some common perceptions of each other's preferences and values.

Studies on perception have demonstrated its importance in interpersonal relationships. For example, individuals attribute values closer to their own to people that they like. Continued acquaintance also affects perceived orientations. Thus, the perception of others' orientations--including value orientations--is affected by the longevity of the relationship.

Empirical studies on personal values reflect two primary emphases: values in relation to particular

groups and values in relation to organizational or administrative processes. For instance, differing value structures of various executive groups have been shown. Among other groups whose values have been investigated are: union leaders, women executives, black and white managers, business students, and business school faculty. Concerning organizational processes, it has been found that effective organizations and individuals had distinctly different value systems than did ineffective organizations and individuals. Managerial value systems have also been found to relate to organizational goals. Some values have been identified as being more important than others as characteristic of conflict and nonconflict situations.

Thus, personal values are important constructs in developing an understanding of organizational processes.

The perception of value systems in the superior-subordinate relationship is a key conditioner of individual behavior and actions. The longevity of the relationship as well as organizational level are also important.

CHAPTER III

STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The study was designed to examine the degree to which subordinates can estimate their superiors' values. Additionally, the degree to which longevity under a superior and organizational level affect the value estimation process is investigated. This chapter will include an explanation of the design and methodology employed to elicit this information. First, the groups of individuals which were surveyed are described. Then, the instrument utilized to measure and estimate the personal values of the groups will be explained. Lastly, the techniques used to analyze the data will be delineated.

GROUP CHARACTERISTICS

Three groups of public sector employees were used for the investigation. One group was selected from a city organization, the Las Vegas, Nevada, Fire Department. Within that organization, employees at three organizational levels were surveyed: firemen, fire captains, and fire battalion chiefs. Individuals from each of the three rotating platoons were surveyed.

The second group of respondents represented a

combined city-county organization, the Las Vegas Metropolitan Police Department. Within this organization all three shifts of the traffic division were surveyed.

The third group was a state organization, the Nevada Employment Security Department. Within this department, employees at the Las Vegas, Nevada, and North Las Vegas, Nevada, offices were surveyed.

These three organizations were selected for the study for several reasons. First, the necessity for an adequate sampling of superior-subordinate pairs required that the chosen organizations be large. The selected organizations are among the five largest public sector organizations in the state. Second, the method of administration of the instrument required the full cooperation of the top executives in the selected organizations. The organizations used in the study offered this degree of cooperation. Third, the intent of the study was to survey a cross-section of public sector employees. In the judgment of the writer and a chief personnel analyst for the state of Nevada, the organizations used for the study fulfilled this intent.

Table 1 shows the number of individuals surveyed and the number of superior-subordinate pairs at both high and low levels for each organization. It should be noted that a particular superior will form a superior-subordinate pair with each of his subordinates. Thus, the total

Table 1
 Characteristics of Surveyed Individuals

Organization	Number Surveyed	Number of Superior-Subordi- nate Pairs	Organi- zational Levels
Las Vegas, Nevada Fire Department	107	20 67	High Low
Las Vegas, Nevada Metropolitan Police Department	81	18 50	High Low
Nevada Employment Security Department	58	23 26	High Low

number of individuals shown as pairs will exceed the total number of individuals surveyed.

THE INSTRUMENT

The subjects who were surveyed were asked to complete a modified form of the Rokeach Value Survey (see Appendix). Those individuals defined as being subordinates (as will be explained later, an individual could be designated as either a superior or as a subordinate) were asked to complete the form as they felt their superior would. The individual's superior would, then, complete the form giving his own estimates of the importance of the various qualities and characteristics.

In addition to completion of the value survey, respondents were asked to give information concerning: age, sex, length of employment in the public sector, length of employment in the private sector, length of time the individual has worked for his or her superior, length of time the individual has known his or her superior, and whether or not there is social interaction between superior and subordinate. The superior was also asked to identify himself, while the subordinate was asked only to identify his superior.

The principal reason that subordinates were not asked to identify themselves was that the survey asks for information that the individual could perceive as threaten-

ing, especially since it involves an estimate of a superior in several sensitive areas. Superiors, who were only asked to divulge their own feelings, were asked to identify themselves so that they could be matched up with their subordinates.

It is appropriate at this point to discuss in more detail the nature of the survey form used in the study. Currently, the most widely used version of the Rokeach Value Survey involves a gummed label technique of rank-ordering each group of 18 values. However, for the purposes of the present study, and so that parametric analytical techniques could be used, the Survey was modified to a seven-point Likert-type scale. The literature contains ample precedent for this type of modification. For example, Vinson,¹¹⁹ Weber,¹²⁰ and Schuhmann¹²¹ all used such a modified form of the Rokeach Value Survey.

¹¹⁹Donald E. Vinson, "An Empirical Investigation of the Structural Composition and Dynamic Nature of the Consumer's Value-Attitude System" (unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Colorado, 1973).

¹²⁰David W. Weber, "An Exploratory Study into the Relationships between Husband-Wife Value Orientations, Savings Motives and Preferences, and the Compositions of Family Savings Portfolios" (unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Colorado, 1973).

¹²¹Frank K. Schuhmann, "Personal Values and Consumer Behavior" (unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Colorado, 1972).

PROCEDURE

This section includes both a discussion of the procedure used in collecting the data and the technique used to analyze the information.

The writer personally administered all questionnaires. Each group was told the purpose of the study and was assured that no names would be used in the reporting of results. The writer conducted the survey at briefings, departmental meetings, or during the work day (in the case of firemen). The survey forms were removed from the premises immediately.

The survey was explained as being voluntary (this was a precondition set by the senior executives of the organizations). Even so, only a minute fraction either declined to participate (1) or completed the form in an inappropriate manner (5). To negate problems of sampling, all duty personnel of every shift or platoon (where applicable) were asked to complete the form. The only employees excluded were those who were not available at the time the survey was made. For example, the firemen at a particular station might have been on a call or an individual might have been ill on the day the survey was administered. Otherwise, all individuals in the particular group were surveyed.

Since the study was designed, in part, to examine

the influence of organizational level on the value estimation process, two organizational levels were defined. "Low level" was defined as the first level supervisors and their subordinates. "High level" was defined as any level in the organization above "low level." In order that a sufficient number of superior-subordinate pairs be surveyed, it was necessary that individuals who were superiors in the "low level" groupings complete the survey again as subordinates in the "high level" groupings.

It should also be noted that the longevity of the superior-subordinate relationship was separated into four intervals: under one year, one to two years, two to four years, and four years and over.

Since the affected "swing" individuals were first asked to complete the survey as a superior and then were immediately asked to complete it as a subordinate, the possibility of an interaction effect was present. To test this possibility, 108 survey respondents were included in a test for interaction effect. Fourteen individuals represented high level testing and completed the instrument as subordinates only. Fifty-one individuals represented low level testing where the appropriate subjects completed the instrument only as superiors. Forty-three individuals represented both high and low levels and were asked to complete the instrument as superiors for those below them and as subordinates for those above them.

Regression analysis was employed to test for possible interaction effects due to completion of the survey as both a superior and as a subordinate. The results of the test are shown in Tables 2 and 3.

The results of the regression analysis indicate significant interaction effects on only six of the thirty-six values. No explanation can be offered at this point as to the reasons for such an interaction. However, it is felt that the overall effect on the study results will be minimal, given the relatively small number of values that indicate the interaction effect. Nevertheless, the data analysis includes testing to determine the degree to which the interaction effect influences the results.

Analysis of variance (Fixed model) was used to test hypotheses one, two, three, and five. Correlation analysis was used to test hypothesis four. That is, the variances of the value estimation process between subordinate and superior were compared to determine the degree to which the subordinate could estimate the superior's values. Also, the variances of the actual versus estimated values were compared to test the degree to which organizational level affected the accuracy of estimation. Correlation analysis was used to test whether the value estimation process improved as the longevity of the superior-subordinate relationship increased. The results of these tests will be explained in the next chapter.

Table 2
Regression Analysis for Interaction Effect
Terminal Values

Value	F-Value	Probability
A Comfortable Life	0.48465	0.6231
An Exciting Life	1.81903	0.1652
A World at Peace	1.43083	0.2424
Equality	2.87525	0.0592
Freedom	3.23338	0.0421*
Happiness	0.45287	0.6429
National Security	0.51203	0.6064
Pleasure	4.21821	0.0170*
Salvation	3.53542	0.0317*
Social Recognition	1.53619	0.2184
True Friendship	0.56013	0.5782
Wisdom	0.92618	0.5984
A World of Beauty	1.59135	0.2068
Family Security	1.05636	0.3524
Mature Love	0.39909	0.6776
Self-respect	1.61721	0.2016
A Sense of Accomplishment	0.51524	0.6045
Inner Harmony	1.25106	0.2899

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 3
Regression Analysis for Interaction Effect
Instrumental Values

Value	F-Value	Probability
Ambitious	0.52746	0.5973
Broadminded	1.59272	0.2065
Capable	0.07297	0.9292
Cheerful	0.25649	0.7776
Clean	3.93364	0.0219*
Courageous	0.86824	0.5743
Forgiving	1.32639	0.2689
Helpful	3.21535	0.0428*
Honest	2.07983	0.1280
Imaginative	5.39781	0.0061**
Independent	0.27396	0.7647
Intellectual	0.17056	0.8444
Logical	0.47470	0.6298
Loving	0.41189	0.6692
Obedient	0.26870	0.7686
Polite	0.31018	0.7386
Responsible	0.74490	0.5185
Self-controlled	0.16251	0.8510

*Level of Significance = .05

**Level of Significance = .01

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

The results of the statistical analysis are presented in this chapter. Analysis of the results, conclusions, and recommendations for further research will be presented in Chapter V.

Two methods of statistical analysis were used to analyze the data. These were analysis of variance and correlation analysis.¹²² Analysis of variance was used to test hypotheses one, two, three, and five. Correlation analysis was used to test hypothesis four.

Tables 4-43 show the means of the differences between actual and estimated values by longevity, organizational level, and both longevity and organizational level. Tables 44-79 indicate the results of analysis of variance for these mean differences.

Tables 80-83 show the absolute magnitudes of the mean differences between actual and estimated values by longevity and organizational level. Tables 84 and 85

¹²²See J. P. Guilford and Benjamin Fruchter, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (5th ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1973), pp. 79-95 and pp. 229-78 for explanations of these techniques.

indicate the result of correlation analysis on the absolute magnitudes of the mean differences as related to longevity. Tables 86-121 show the results of analysis of variance for the absolute mean differences by organizational level.

MEANS OF THE DIFFERENCES

The means of the differences between the values of the superiors and the values attributed to them by their subordinates are shown in Tables 4-43. Table 4 reflects the means by longevity categories for the terminal values. Table 5 shows the means by longevity for the instrumental values. The number of individuals surveyed in both longevity and organizational level categories are reflected in the tables. These numbers, however, represent superior-subordinate pairs rather than individuals. Since the attributed values were subtracted from the actual values in calculating differences, the means that reflect negative quantities indicate that the subordinate estimated a higher value for the item than that given by the superior. Where the subordinate underestimated his superior's values, the mean difference is reflected by a positive number.

Table 6 shows the mean differences by organizational level for the terminal values. Table 7 reflects the mean differences by organizational level for the instrumental values.

Tables 8-43 show the mean differences when longevity

and organizational level are considered simultaneously. The number of superior-subordinate pairs in each grouping are:

0-1.0 Years	(Low level)	n = 68
0-1.0 Years	(High level)	n = 18
1.0-2.0 Years	(Low level)	n = 24
1.0-2.0 Years	(High level)	n = 16
2.0-4.0 Years	(Low level)	n = 34
2.0-4.0 Years	(High level)	n = 19
4.0 Years and Above	(Low level)	n = 17
4.0 Years and Above	(High level)	n = 8

As with the previously shown mean differences, negative numbers reflect an overestimation of the superiors' values by the subordinates.

In summary, this section of Chapter IV has depicted the means of the differences between the subordinates' estimates of their superiors' values, and the superiors' actual values. These mean differences have been categorized by: the length of time a subordinate has worked for a superior, by the organizational level at which the superior-subordinate pair is working, and by these two factors considered simultaneously. The results of analysis of variance will be presented next.

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS--DIFFERENCES

The results of analysis of variance on the mean

Table 4
Means of the Differences by Longevity Category
Terminal Values

Value	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0 (n=86)	1.0-2.0 (n=40)	2.0-4.0 (n=53)	4.0 and Above (n=25)
A Comfortable Life	.28	.40	.15	1.00
An Exciting Life	-.35	-.38	-1.06	.44
A World at Peace	-.56	-.50	-.57	-.28
Equality	-.10	-.88	-.83	-.16
Freedom	-.30	-.28	-.39	-.48
Happiness	-.34	-.10	.32	-.36
National Security	-.36	-.63	-1.62	.04
Pleasure	.88	.25	1.01	1.04
Salvation	.21	-.50	-.57	-.28
Social Recognition	.48	.60	1.15	.08
True Friendship	-.71	-.30	-.47	-.96
Wisdom	-.40	-.70	-.72	-.68
A World of Beauty	-.55	-1.18	-.89	-.48
Family Security	.23	-.18	-.58	-.32
Mature Love	-.07	-.38	-.57	-.52
Self-respect	-.07	-.13	-.43	-.40
A Sense of Accomplishment	-.35	-.43	-.40	-.24
Inner Harmony	-.40	-.98	-.81	-.84

Table 5
Means of the Differences by Longevity Category
Instrumental Values

Value	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0 (n=86)	1.0-2.0 (n=40)	2.0-4.0 (n=53)	4.0 and Above (n=25)
Ambitious	.07	-.13	-.19	-.08
Broadminded	-.80	-1.10	-.77	.00
Capable	-.13	-.30	-.66	-.20
Cheerful	-.15	-.15	-.08	-.08
Clean	.44	-.03	.09	.20
Courageous	.02	-.58	-.74	.16
Forgiving	-.10	-.58	-.49	-.84
Helpful	.50	-.03	-.02	-.12
Honest	-.47	-.43	-.47	-.32
Imaginative	.22	-.70	-.28	-.56
Independent	.55	-.55	-.55	-.52
Intellectual	.59	-.08	.42	.36
Logical	.20	-.13	-.13	.16
Loving	.15	-.98	-.49	-.64
Obedient	.47	.23	-.02	.44
Polite	.09	-.03	-.34	-.32
Responsible	-.13	-.38	-.21	-.44
Self-controlled	-.03	-.13	-.55	-.40

Table 6
Means of the Differences by Organizational Level
Terminal Values

Value	Organizational Level	
	Low Level (n=143)	High Level (n=61)
A Comfortable Life	.24	.64
An Exciting Life	-.42	-.49
A World at Peace	-.90	.38
Equality	-.30	-.80
Freedom	-.45	-.08
Happiness	-.41	.54
National Security	-.72	-.62
Pleasure	.80	.85
Salvation	.07	-.36
Social Recognition	.87	.07
True Friendship	-.74	-.26
Wisdom	-.40	-.98
A World of Beauty	-.84	-.54
Family Security	.02	-.48
Mature Love	-.23	-.51
Self-respect	-.13	.43
A Sense of Accomplishment	-.28	-.56
Inner Harmony	-.66	-.70

Table 7

Means of the Differences by Organizational Level
Instrumental Values

Value	Organizational Level	
	Low Level (n=143)	High Level (n=61)
Ambitious	.08	-.38
Broadminded	-.75	-.77
Capable	-.21	-.54
Cheerful	-.03	-.34
Clean	.23	.23
Courageous	.10	-1.15
Forgiving	-.43	-.28
Helpful	.32	-.13
Honest	-.52	-.25
Imaginative	.21	-1.11
Independent	.18	-.70
Intellectual	.49	.15
Logical	.01	.11
Loving	-.17	-.72
Obedient	.17	.56
Polite	-.12	-.03
Responsible	-.23	-.25
Self-controlled	-.10	-.52

Table 8

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: A Comfortable Life

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.04	.42	.29	1.18
High	1.17	.38	.37	.63

Table 9

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: An Exciting Life

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.40	-.58	-.85	.59
High	-.17	-.63	-1.43	.13

Table 10

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: A World at Peace

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.59	-1.21	-1.41	-.65
High	-.44	.56	.95	.50

Table 11

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Equality

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.13	-.88	-.82	-.18
High	-1.00	-.88	-.84	-.13

Table 12

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Freedom

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.31	-.58	-.68	-.41
High	-.28	.19	.11	-.63

Table 13

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Happiness

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.54	-.46	.03	-.65
High	.44	.44	.84	.25

Table 14

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: National Security

Organi- zational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.32	-1.00	-1.76	.18
High	-.50	-.06	-1.37	-.25

Table 15

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Pleasure

Organi- zational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.84	.17	.94	1.24
High	1.06	.38	1.16	.63

Table 16

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Salvation

Organi- zational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.49	-.33	-.56	.24
High	-.83	-.75	.84	-1.38

Table 17

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Social Recognition

Organi- zational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.60	1.00	1.59	.29
High	.00	.00	.37	-1.38

Table 18

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: True Friendship

Organi- zational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.71	-.38	-.79	-1.29
High	-.72	-.19	.10	-.25

Table 19

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Wisdom

Organi- zational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.22	-.21	-.71	-.76
High	-1.06	-1.44	-.74	-.50

Table 20

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: A World of Beauty

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.71	-1.58	-.74	-.53
High	.06	-.56	-1.16	-.38

Table 21

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Family Security

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.44	-.25	-.50	-.24
High	-.56	-.06	-.74	-.50

Table 22

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Mature Love

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.06	-.38	-.47	-.71
High	-.56	-.38	-.74	-.13

Table 23

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Self-respect

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.03	.04	-.32	-.35
High	-.22	-.38	-.63	-.50

Table 24

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: A Sense of Accomplishment

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.24	-.08	-.56	-.18
High	-.78	-.94	-.11	-.38

Table 25

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Inner Harmony

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.32	-1.29	-.85	-.71
High	-.67	-.50	-.74	-1.13

Table 26

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Ambitious

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.13	.42	-.26	.12
High	-.17	-.94	-.05	-.50

Table 27

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Broadminded

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.79	-1.08	-.97	.35
High	-.83	-1.13	-.42	-.75

Table 28

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Capable

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.13	-.04	-.53	-.12
High	-.11	-.69	-.89	-.38

Table 29

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Cheerful

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.00	-.08	-.06	.00
High	-.72	-.25	-.11	-.25

Table 30

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Clean

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.43	-.04	.09	.12
High	.50	.00	.11	.38

Table 31

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Courageous

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.41	-.29	-.47	.53
High	-1.44	-1.00	-1.21	-.63

Table 32

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Forgiving

Organi- zational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.00	-.54	-.88	-1.12
High	-.50	-.63	.21	-.25

Table 33

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Helpful

Organi- zational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.72	.08	-.03	-.24
High	-.33	-.19	.00	.13

Table 34

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Honest

Organi- zational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.54	-.50	-.56	-.41
High	-.17	-.31	-.32	-.13

Table 35

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Imaginative

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	3.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.66	-.08	-.29	-.18
High	-1.44	-1.63	-.26	-1.38

Table 36

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Independent

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.87	-.29	-.59	-.35
High	-.67	-.94	-.47	-.88

Table 37

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Intellectual

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.72	.13	.09	.88
High	.11	-.38	1.00	-.75

Table 38

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Logical

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.24	-.13	-.59	.53
High	.06	-.13	.68	-.63

Table 39

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Loving

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.44	-.83	-.79	-.41
High	-.94	-1.19	.05	-1.13

Table 40

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Obedient

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.32	.00	-.24	.65
High	1.00	.56	.37	.00

Table 41

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Polite

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.16	-.13	-.50	-.47
High	-.17	.13	-.05	.00

Table 42

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Responsible

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	-.16	-.21	-.24	-.53
High	.00	-.63	-.16	-.25

Table 43

Mean Differences by Longevity and Organizational Level
Value: Self-controlled

Organizational Level	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0	1.0-2.0	2.0-4.0	4.0 and Above
Low	.04	-.04	-.38	-.24
High	-.33	-.25	-.84	-.75

differences are shown in Tables 44-79. When only the length of time that a subordinate has worked for a superior was considered, significant results at the .01 level were found for the following values: An Exciting Life, National Security, and Independent. Significant results at the .05 level were found for these values: Happiness, Family Security, and Courageous. Thus, the longevity of the superior-subordinate relationship affected the value estimation process significantly for only six of the thirty-six values.

When organizational level alone was considered, results indicating significance at the .01 level were shown for the following values: A World at Peace, Happiness, Courageous, and Imaginative. Significant results at the .05 level were indicated for these values: Social Recognition, Wisdom, Ambitious, and Independent. Thus, the organizational level at which the superior and subordinate were working affected the value estimation process in a significant way for only eight of the thirty-six values.

When the interaction between organizational level and longevity was considered, results indicate significance at the .01 level for none of the values. Significant results at the .05 level of significance were indicated for the following values: A World at Peace, Salvation, Intellectual, and Logical. Thus, when organizational level and

longevity were considered simultaneously, only four of the thirty-six values showed significant results.

In summary, the results of analysis of variance showed significant results for a maximum of eight and a minimum of four values of the total of thirty-six values. The means of the absolute magnitudes of the differences will be presented next.

MEANS OF THE ABSOLUTE DIFFERENCES

The means of the absolute differences between the values of the superiors and the values attributed to them by their subordinates are shown in Tables 80-83. Table 80 shows the means by longevity categories for the terminal values. Table 81 shows the means by longevity categories for the instrumental values. As before, the number of superior-subordinate pairs surveyed in each category are reflected in the tables.

Table 82 shows the means of the absolute differences by organizational level for the terminal values. Table 83 reflects the absolute mean differences by organizational level for the instrumental values.

In summary, this section of Chapter IV has depicted the absolute magnitudes of the differences between the subordinates' estimates of the superiors' values, and the superiors' actual values. These absolute magnitudes have been categorized by the length of time a subordinate has

Table 44
Analysis of Variance--A Comfortable Life

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	13.18	4.39	1.62	.18
Organizational Level	1	6.73	6.73	2.49	.12
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	14.27	4.76	1.76	.16
Error	196	530.69	2.71		
Total	203	564.87			

Table 45
Analysis of Variance--An Exciting Life

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	40.39	13.46	4.06	.008**
Organizational Level	1	.03	.03	.01	.92
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	8.43	2.81	.85	.47
Error	196	649.44	3.31		
Total	203	698.29			

**Level of Significance = .01

Table 46
Analysis of Variance--A World at Peace

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	1.69	.56	.13	.94
Organizational Level	1	70.44	70.44	16.24	.0001**
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	34.95	11.65	2.69	.0469*
Error	196	849.88	4.34		
Total	203	956.96			

*Level of Significance = .05

**Level of Significance = .01

Table 47
Analysis of Variance--Equality

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	27.24	9.08	1.84	.14
Organizational Level	1	6.22	6.22	1.26	.26
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	12.05	4.02	.82	.49
Error	196	965.00	4.92		
Total	203	1010.51			

Table 48
Analysis of Variance--Freedom

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	.95	.32	.16	.92
Organizational Level	1	6.34	6.34	3.19	.08
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	7.08	2.36	1.19	.31
Error	196	389.62	1.99		
Total	203	403.99			

Table 49
Analysis of Variance--Happiness

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	15.81	5.27	2.92	.0349*
Organizational Level	1	33.84	33.84	18.73	.0001**
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	.20	.07	.04	.99
Error	196	354.09	1.81		
Total	203	403.94			

*Level of Significance = .05

**Level of Significance = .01

Table 50
Analysis of Variance--National Security

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	68.93	22.98	5.92	.0008**
Organizational Level	1	1.95	1.95	.50	.48
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	9.83	3.28	.84	.47
Error	196	760.83	3.88		
Total	203	841.54			

**Level of Significance = .01

Table 51
Analysis of Variance--Pleasure

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	16.64	5.55	1.41	.24
Organizational Level	1	.47	.47	.12	.73
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	3.22	1.07	.27	.85
Error	196	772.59	3.94		
Total	203	792.92			

Table 52
Analysis of Variance--Salvation

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	15.19	5.06	.92	.43
Organizational Level	1	5.04	5.04	.91	.34
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	59.40	19.80	3.59	.0146*
Error	196	1079.66	5.51		
Total	203	1159.29			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 53
Analysis of Variance--Social Recognition

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	24.00	8.00	1.64	.18
Organizational Level	1	32.47	32.47	6.65	.0106*
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	2.88	.96	.20	.90
Error	196	956.34	4.88		
Total	203	1015.69			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 54
Analysis of Variance--True Friendship

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	8.74	2.91	.70	.56
Organizational Level	1	8.00	8.00	1.92	.17
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	8.13	2.71	.65	.59
Error	196	818.17	4.17		
Total	203	843.04			

Table 55
Analysis of Variance--Wisdom

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	4.74	1.58	.60	.62
Organizational Level	1	12.34	12.34	4.65	.0323*
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	12.48	4.16	1.57	.20
Error	196	520.33	2.65		
Total	203	549.89			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 56
Analysis of Variance--A World of Beauty

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	13.60	4.53	1.01	.39
Organizational Level	1	6.43	6.43	1.43	.23
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	14.13	4.71	1.05	.37
Error	196	878.09	4.48		
Total	203	912.25			

Table 57
Analysis of Variance--Family Security

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	23.25	7.75	2.91	.0351*
Organizational Level	1	6.74	6.74	2.53	.11
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	8.81	2.94	1.10	.35
Error	196	521.89	2.66		
Total	203	560.69			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 58
Analysis of Variance--Mature Love

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	9.71	3.24	.83	.48
Organizational Level	1	1.88	1.88	.48	.49
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	6.19	2.06	.53	.66
Error	196	760.14	3.88		
Total	203	777.92			

Table 59
Analysis of Variance--Self-respect

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	5.53	1.84	1.27	.29
Organizational Level	1	3.08	3.08	2.11	.15
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	.39	.13	.09	.96
Error	196	285.51	1.46		
Total	203	294.51			

Table 60
Analysis of Variance--A Sense of Accomplishment

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	.61	.20	.09	.96
Organizational Level	1	3.17	3.17	1.45	.23
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	10.74	3.58	1.64	.18
Error	196	428.63	2.19		
Total	203	443.15			

Table 61
Analysis of Variance--Inner Harmony

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	11.99	4.00	1.33	.27
Organizational Level	1	.08	.08	.03	.87
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	8.73	2.91	.97	.41
Error	196	590.19	3.01		
Total	203	610.99			

Table 62
Analysis of Variance--Ambitious

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	2.50	.83	.39	.76
Organizational Level	1	7.84	7.84	3.69	.0562*
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	13.66	4.55	2.14	.09
Error	196	416.41	2.12		
Total	203	440.41			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 63
Analysis of Variance--Broadminded

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	19.22	6.41	2.09	.10
Organizational Level	1	.00	.00	.00	.98
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	10.34	3.45	1.13	.34
Error	196	600.19	3.06		
Total	203	629.75			

Table 64
Analysis of Variance--Capable

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	9.66	3.22	1.77	.15
Organizational Level	1	3.33	3.33	1.83	.18
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	2.67	.89	.49	.69
Error	196	355.88	1.82		
Total	203	371.54			

Table 65
Analysis of Variance--Cheerful

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	.26	.09	.03	.99
Organizational Level	1	4.60	4.60	1.71	.19
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	3.46	1.15	.43	.74
Error	196	525.62	2.68		
Total	203	533.94			

Table 66
Analysis of Variance--Clean

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	7.46	2.49	1.31	.27
Organizational Level	1	.22	.22	.12	.73
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	.23	.08	.04	.98
Error	196	372.26	1.90		
Total	203	380.17			

Table 67
Analysis of Variance--Courageous

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	27.24	9.08	2.84	.0383*
Organizational Level	1	56.77	56.77	17.79	.0001**
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	11.00	3.67	1.15	.33
Error	196	625.61	3.19		
Total	203	720.62			

*Level of Significance = .05

**Level of Significance = .01

Table 68
Analysis of Variance--Forgiving

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	13.97	4.67	1.15	.33
Organizational Level	1	2.47	2.47	.61	.44
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	19.81	6.60	1.63	.18
Error	196	796.16	4.06		
Total	203	832.41			

Table 69
Analysis of Variance--Helpful

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	14.83	4.94	1.41	.24
Organizational Level	1	5.63	5.63	1.60	.21
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	11.60	3.87	1.10	.35
Error	196	688.87	3.51		
Total	203	720.93			

Table 70
Analysis of Variance--Honest

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	.48	.16	.12	.95
Organizational Level	1	3.30	3.30	2.43	.12
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	.23	.08	.06	.98
Error	196	266.29	1.36		
Total	203	270.30			

Table 71
Analysis of Variance--Imaginative

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	28.80	9.60	1.96	.12
Organizational Level	1	62.54	62.54	12.76	.0004**
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	31.24	10.41		.10
Error	196	960.34	4.90		
Total	203	1082.92			

**Level of Significance = .01

Table 72
Analysis of Variance--Independent

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	59.00	19.67	4.14	.0073**
Organizational Level	1	20.96	20.96	4.41	.0370*
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	18.19	6.06	1.28	.28
Error	196	931.43	4.75		
Total	203	1029.58			

*Level of Significance = .05

**Level of Significance = .01

Table 73
Analysis of Variance--Intellectual

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	12.25	4.08	1.46	.23
Organizational Level	1	3.05	3.05	1.09	.30
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	29.27	9.76	3.49	.0167*
Error	196	547.84	2.80		
Total	203	592.41			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 74
Analysis of Variance--Logical

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	5.15	1.72	.71	.55
Organizational Level	1	1.07	1.07	.45	.51
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	26.37	8.79	3.65	.0136*
Error	196	472.01	2.41		
Total	203	504.60			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 75
Analysis of Variance--Loving

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	40.32	13.44	2.21	.09
Organizational Level	1	6.71	6.71	1.10	.30
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	33.33	11.11	1.83	.14
Error	196	1192.98	6.09		
Total	203	1273.34			

Table 76
Analysis of Variance--Obedient

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	8.42	2.81	.99	.40
Organizational Level	1	8.58	8.58	3.03	.08
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	7.69	2.56	.90	.44
Error	196	555.24	2.83		
Total	203	579.93			

Table 77
Analysis of Variance--Polite

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	7.67	2.56	1.02	.38
Organizational Level	1	.79	.79	.32	.57
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	4.99	1.66	.66	.58
Error	196	489.78	2.50		
Total	203	503.23			

Table 78
Analysis of Variance--Responsible

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	2.86	.95	.60	.62
Organizational Level	1	.01	.01	.01	.92
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	2.52	.84	.53	.66
Error	196	309.31	1.58		
Total	203	314.70			

Table 79
Analysis of Variance--Self-controlled

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Longevity	3	9.77	3.26	1.12	.34
Organizational Level	1	6.00	6.00	2.07	.15
Longevity/ Organizational Level	3	.46	.15	.05	.98
Error	196	567.94	2.90		
Total	203	584.17			

Table 80

Means of the Absolute Differences by Longevity Category
Terminal Values

Value	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0 (n=86)	1.0-2.0 (n=40)	2.0-4.0 (n=53)	4.0 and Above (n=25)
A Comfortable Life	1.42	1.35	1.36	1.32
An Exciting Life	1.21	1.53	1.81	1.08
A World at Peace	1.77	1.70	1.70	1.24
Equality	1.69	2.03	1.55	1.68
Freedom	.79	1.08	.89	.64
Happiness	1.03	.95	.89	.68
National Security	1.64	1.63	1.96	.84
Pleasure	1.58	1.55	1.89	2.00
Salvation	2.07	1.75	1.72	1.24
Social Recognition	1.50	1.95	2.17	1.44
True Friendship	1.52	1.40	1.94	1.76
Wisdom	1.19	1.20	1.32	1.48
A World of Beauty	1.66	1.88	1.94	1.36
Family Security	1.05	1.08	1.11	.56
Mature Love	1.37	1.43	1.77	1.24
Self-respect	.84	1.03	.70	.64
A Sense of Accomplishment	1.02	1.23	1.04	1.20
Inner Harmony	1.42	1.53	1.15	1.32

Table 81

Means of the Absolute Differences by Longevity Category
Instrumental Values

Value	Longevity Category (Years)			
	0-1.0 (n=86)	1.0-2.0 (n=40)	2.0-4.0 (n=53)	4.0 and Above (n=25)
Ambitious	.88	1.28	.98	1.12
Broadminded	1.50	1.50	1.26	1.36
Capable	.71	.90	1.26	.84
Cheerful	1.15	1.35	1.25	1.12
Clean	1.12	.83	.89	1.08
Courageous	1.44	1.53	1.19	1.60
Forgiving	1.80	1.28	1.40	1.48
Helpful	1.76	1.13	1.19	1.08
Honest	.77	.83	.81	.48
Imaginative	2.01	1.90	1.49	1.68
Independent	1.57	1.75	1.72	1.32
Intellectual	1.15	1.48	1.36	1.72
Logical	1.01	1.28	1.19	1.68
Loving	1.99	2.18	2.11	1.84
Obedient	1.16	1.33	1.34	1.40
Polite	1.23	.98	1.21	1.28
Responsible	.76	.78	.70	.92
Self-controlled	.92	1.03	1.34	2.00

Table 82

Means of the Absolute Differences by Organizational Level
Terminal Values

Value	Organizational Level	
	Low Level (n=143)	High Level (n=61)
A Comfortable Life	1.43	1.26
An Exciting Life	1.44	1.34
A World at Peace	1.65	1.72
Equality	1.70	1.75
Freedom	.80	.97
Happiness	.78	1.30
National Security	1.69	1.48
Pleasure	1.59	1.97
Salvation	1.76	1.93
Social Recognition	1.80	1.64
True Friendship	1.68	1.54
Wisdom	1.15	1.51
A World of Beauty	1.80	1.59
Family Security	.86	1.36
Mature Love	1.55	1.30
Self-respect	.85	.72
A Sense of Accomplishment	1.02	1.25
Inner Harmony	1.41	1.23

Table 83

Means of the Absolute Differences by Organizational Level
Instrumental Values

Value	Organizational Level	
	Low Level (n=143)	High Level (n=61)
Ambitious	.98	1.10
Broadminded	1.35	1.59
Capable	.81	1.13
Cheerful	1.17	1.30
Clean	1.03	.92
Courageous	1.34	1.57
Forgiving	1.68	1.26
Helpful	1.52	1.11
Honest	.73	.80
Imaginative	1.73	2.00
Independent	1.55	1.75
Intellectual	1.24	1.56
Logical	1.22	1.13
Loving	2.11	1.87
Obedient	1.22	1.38
Polite	1.22	1.08
Responsible	.76	.77
Self-controlled	1.15	1.25

worked for a superior and by the organizational level at which the superior-subordinate pair is working. The results of correlation analysis will be shown next.

CORRELATION ANALYSIS ON LONGEVITY

The results of correlation analysis on the means of the absolute magnitudes of the differences by longevity categories are shown in Tables 84 and 85. Table 84 shows the results for the terminal values. Table 85 reflects the results for the instrumental values.

Correlation analysis was used to examine whether the value estimation process improved as longevity under a superior increased. The results indicated significant findings for only five out of the thirty-six values. Two values indicated significance at the .01 level of significance. These were Logical and Self-controlled. Three of the values indicated significance at the .05 level of significance. These were: Helpful, Imaginative, and Intellectual. However, the correlations were in the hypothesized direction only for the values Helpful and Imaginative.

In summary, the results of correlation analysis indicate significant results in the hypothesized direction for only two of thirty-six values. That is, the difference between the estimated and the actual values decreased as longevity of subordinates under superiors increased for

Table 84

Correlation Analysis on Longevity (Absolute Differences)
Terminal Values

Value	Correlation Coefficients	Probability
A Comfortable Life	-.02046	.77
An Exciting Life	.02540	.72
A World at Peace	-.09583	.17
Equality	-.01048	.88
Freedom	-.03663	.60
Happiness	-.10433	.14
National Security	-.10473	.14
Pleasure	.13136	.06
Salvation	-.12437	.08
Social Recognition	.03468	.62
True Friendship	.09485	.18
Wisdom	.09139	.19
A World of Beauty	-.06225	.38
Family Security	-.10211	.15
Mature Love	-.01976	.78
Self-respect	-.06030	.39
A Sense of Accomplishment	.04552	.52
Inner Harmony	-.01598	.82

Table 85

Correlation Analysis on Longevity (Absolute Differences)
Instrumental Values

Values	Correlation Coefficients	Probability
Ambitious	.04660	.51
Broadminded	-.02135	.76
Capable	.12763	.07
Cheerful	.00021	.99
Clean	.01809	.80
Courageous	.04528	.52
Forgiving	-.08019	.25
Helpful	-.15868	.02*
Honest	-.06512	.35
Imaginative	-.13577	.05*
Independent	-.04005	.57
Intellectual	.13763	.05*
Logical	.20611	.0031**
Loving	-.05399	.44
Obedient	.10884	.12
Polite	.01334	.85
Responsible	.03999	.57
Self-controlled	.30719	.0001**

*Level of Significance = .05

**Level of Significance = .01

only two values. Analysis of variance results for the absolute magnitudes of the mean differences will be presented next.

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE--ABSOLUTE MAGNITUDES

The results of analysis of variance on the absolute magnitudes of the mean differences by organizational level are shown in Tables 86-121. Significant results at the .01 level of significance were indicated only for the value of Happiness. Significant results at the .05 level of significance were indicated for the following values: Wisdom, Family Security, Capable, Forgiving, and Helpful. Thus, significant increases in value estimation ability related to the superior-subordinate pairs being at a higher organizational level for only six of the thirty-six values.

The next section of Chapter IV summarizes the results by hypotheses.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS BY HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: The mean differences between the values attributed to superiors by subordinates and the superiors' actual values were affected significantly by the length of time subordinates had worked for superiors for six of thirty-six values.

Table 86

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
A Comfortable Life

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	1.15	1.15	1.15	.28
Error	202	202.78	1.00		
Total	203	203.93			

Table 87

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
An Exciting Life

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.40	.40	.24	.62
Error	202	331.02	1.64		
Total	203	331.42			

Table 88

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
A World at Peace

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.22	.22	.10	.75
Error	202	440.78	2.18		
Total	203	441.00			

Table 89

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Equality

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.13	.13	.06	.81
Error	202	451.38	2.23		
Total	203	451.51			

Table 90

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Freedom

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	1.14	1.14	.82	.37
Error	202	278.45	1.38		
Total	203	279.59			

Table 91

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Happiness

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	11.20	11.20	10.43	.0014**
Error	202	216.97	1.07		
Total	203	228.17			

**Level of Significance = .01

Table 92

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
National Security

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	1.88	1.88	.95	.33
Error	202	400.05	1.98		
Total	203	401.93			

Table 93

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Pleasure

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	5.94	5.94	3.66	.06
Error	202	328.41	1.63		
Total	203	334.35			

Table 94

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Salvation

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	1.27	1.27	.53	.47
Error	202	487.65	2.41		
Total	203	488.92			

Table 95

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Social Recognition

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	1.16	1.16	.50	.48
Error	202	466.58	2.31		
Total	203	467.74			

Table 96

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
True Friendship

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.81	.81	.44	.51
Error	202	368.35	1.82		
Total	203	369.16			

Table 97

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Wisdom

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	5.37	5.37	3.77	.0536*
Error	202	287.86	1.43		
Total	203	293.23			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 98

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
A World of Beauty

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	1.96	1.96	.97	.33
Error	202	407.27	2.02		
Total	203	409.23			

Table 99

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Family Security

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	10.71	10.71	6.27	.0131*
Error	202	345.27	1.71		
Total	203	355.98			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 100

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Mature Love

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	2.68	2.68	1.53	.22
Error	202	354.14	1.75		
Total	203	356.82			

Table 101

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Self-respect

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.74	.74	.89	.35
Error	202	168.18	.83		
Total	203	168.92			

Table 102

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
A Sense of Accomplishment

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	2.16	2.16	1.93	.17
Error	202	226.25	1.12		
Total	203	228.41			

Table 103

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Inner Harmony

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	1.43	1.43	.89	.35
Error	202	325.44	1.61		
Total	203	326.87			

Table 104

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Ambitious

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.61	.61	.53	.47
Error	202	230.35	1.14		
Total	203	230.96			

Table 105

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Broadminded

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	2.47	2.47	1.51	.22
Error	202	331.27	1.64		
Total	203	333.74			

Table 106

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Capable

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	4.38	4.38	4.04	.0458*
Error	202	218.85	1.08		
Total	203	223.23			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 107

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Cheerful

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.62	.62	.53	.47
Error	202	237.32	1.17		
Total	203	237.94			

Table 108

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Clean

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.52	.52	.55	.46
Error	202	188.48	.93		
Total	203	189.00			

Table 109

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Courageous

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	2.28	2.28	1.41	.24
Error	202	327.13	1.62		
Total	203	329.41			

Table 110
Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Forgiving

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	7.40	7.40	4.12	.0437*
Error	202	363.01	1.80		
Total	203	370.41			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 111
Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Helpful

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	7.18	7.18	4.53	.0345*
Error	202	319.86	1.58		
Total	203	327.04			

*Level of Significance = .05

Table 112
Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Honest

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.20	.20	.21	.65
Error	202	193.54	.96		
Total	203	193.74			

Table 113

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Imaginative

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	3.02	3.02	1.47	.23
Error	202	415.90	2.06		
Total	203	418.92			

Table 114

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Independent

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	1.74	1.74	.70	.40
Error	202	498.67	2.47		
Total	203	500.41			

Table 115

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Intellectual

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	4.18	4.18	3.33	.07
Error	202	253.48	1.25		
Total	203	257.66			

Table 116

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Logical

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.31	.31	.29	.59
Error	202	215.23	1.07		
Total	203	215.54			

Table 117

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Loving

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	2.53	2.53	1.15	.29
Error	202	445.16	2.20		
Total	203	447.69			

Table 118

Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Obedient

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	1.00	1.00	.76	.38
Error	202	267.17	1.32		
Total	203	268.17			

Table 119
Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Polite

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.86	.86	.79	.37
Error	202	219.43	1.09		
Total	203	220.29			

Table 120
Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Responsible

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.00	.00	.00	.96
Error	202	206.70	1.02		
Total	203	206.70			

Table 121
Analysis of Variance (Absolute Magnitudes)--
Self-controlled

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	Probability
Organizational Level	1	.36	.36	.24	.63
Error	202	309.93	1.53		
Total	203	310.29			

- Hypothesis 2: The mean differences between the values attributed to superiors by subordinates and the superiors' actual values were affected significantly by the organizational level at which the two were located for eight of thirty-six values.
- Hypothesis 3: The mean differences between the values attributed to superiors by subordinates and superiors' actual values were affected significantly by interaction between organizational level and length of time subordinates had worked for superiors for four of thirty-six values.
- Hypothesis 4: The absolute magnitudes of the differences between the values attributed to superiors and the superiors' actual values declined significantly as length of time subordinates had worked for superiors increased for two of thirty-six values.
- Hypothesis 5: The absolute magnitudes of the differences between the values attributed to superiors and the superiors' actual values declined significantly as organizational level increased for six of thirty-six values.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this chapter, conclusions will be drawn from the results of the investigation presented in Chapter IV. First, the results of the means of the differences between the actual values of the superiors and the values attributed to them by subordinates are examined. Second, the results of analysis of variance on these means are analyzed. Third, the means of the absolute magnitudes of the mean differences are examined. Fourth, the results of correlation analysis on the relationship between the absolute magnitudes of the mean differences and longevity of the superior-subordinate relationship are examined. Fifth, the results of analysis of variance on the relationship between the absolute mean differences and the organizational level at which the superior-subordinate pair is working are interpreted. Sixth, implications for organizational managers are discussed. Finally, recommendations for further research based on the results of this study are made.

MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ACTUAL AND ATTRIBUTED VALUES

In this section, the results of the mean differences between the superiors' actual values and the values attributed to them by their subordinates are examined. These mean differences were categorized by longevity, organizational level, and by interaction between longevity and organizational level.

Generally, the subordinates assigned a higher estimate for their superiors' values than did the superiors when they rated their actual values. Out of the 144 mean differences (see Tables 4 and 5) for the four longevity categories, i.e., thirty-six values for each category, 107 reflected negative differences.

There are several possible explanations for subordinates overestimating superiors' values. It may have been that, in spite of the attempts to assure the subordinates that their estimates of their superiors' values would be held strictly confidential, some feeling persisted that completing the survey honestly might involve a punitive potential. Thus, the subordinates may have tended to estimate their superiors' values higher to ameliorate any threatening aspects of the situation.

Another possible explanation for subordinates overestimating their superiors' values may be the mechanism of

projection. Perhaps the subordinates, rather than honestly attempting to estimate their superiors' value structure, merely projected their own values onto their superiors and completed the survey accordingly. Such a reaction might conceivably be expected in the case of the terminal values, which reflect end-states of existence and thus may be least discernible to a subordinate. In fact, however, the negative means are split virtually evenly between the two halves of the survey form.

In summary, there was a distinct tendency for subordinates to overestimate their superiors' values. Possible reasons include the perception of potential threat from complete candor in the estimation process as well as the operation of the mechanism of projection.

THE EFFECT OF LONGEVITY AND ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL ON THE VALUE ESTIMATION PROCESS

Analysis of variance was used to test the means of the differences for significance. In this section, the results of analysis of variance will be discussed.

The means of the differences between the superiors' actual values and the values attributed to them by their subordinates were analyzed in three dimensions. Longevity of the superior-subordinate relationship was tested for its impact on the estimation process. Organizational level was also examined for its effect on the accuracy of value

attribution. Lastly, the interaction between longevity and organizational level was tested.

The most significant factor in terms of affecting the value estimation process appeared to be organizational level. Eight of the thirty-six values indicated significance at either the .01 or .05 level. The next most influential factor was longevity. For six of the thirty-six values longevity was found to have a significant effect. Least significant in terms of impacting the value estimation process was the interaction between longevity and organizational level. Only four of thirty-six values (all at the .05 level of significance) affected the value estimation process significantly. Thus, it is possible to state that, in general terms, longevity, organizational level, and interaction between longevity and organizational level do not significantly affect the value estimation process except in a minority of instances. There are several possible explanations for this finding.

First, it is possible that interaction of the type that takes place in the typical job setting does not lend itself to the familiarity from which one could accurately estimate another's values. After all, in spite of the impact that behaviorally-oriented management philosophies have had on the methods of managers, a good many supervisors and managers still maintain considerable psychological distance between themselves and their subordinates.

Thus, the opportunities for a subordinate to develop a good notion of his superior's value system might be minimal.

Second, and specifically related to the organizational level at which the superior-subordinate pair is working, it may be that promotion in the hierarchy works against establishing the relationships with a superior which would lead to better value estimation. In other words, a promotable individual may tend to move up fairly rapidly through the hierarchy and, in the process, not long remain as a subordinate for any particular superior. These short-term relationships may prevent the value estimation process from improving.

Third, the process of stereotyping may be operating to prevent improvement in value estimation. For example, an employee either just entering the organization or changing jobs within the organization may spend considerable time at first attempting to better gauge the nature of his new superior. In doing this, he will perhaps rely quite heavily on the notions of others in forming his own initial impressions. At the same time, he will give considerable weight to his own first impressions of his superior. As the superior-subordinate relationship continues over time, new inputs of data which would modify the impressions formed earlier are selectively perceived and filtered so as to confirm already held opinions. This process may prevent longevity of subordinate under superior

from improving the value estimation process.

Fourth, the suitability of the instrument selected, i.e. the Rokeach Value Survey, for testing person-to-person value estimation should be discussed. The study, in part, was an attempt to apply this instrument in a new context. In defense of its selection, it should be noted that the instrument had been used to elicit one group's estimation of another group's values. It may be, however, that an individual can better estimate, and feels more comfortable estimating, the values of another group rather than the values of another person.

In reference to the point just mentioned, it is advisable to evaluate whether or not the significant values in the analysis of variance testing come from the instrumental or terminal group. The intuitive feeling of the researcher was that the work relationship, as opposed to a more personal one, would lend itself better to accurate estimation of the instrumental rather than the terminal values. To put it another way, subordinates may be able to gauge their superiors' preference for certain modes of conduct better than they can evaluate their bias toward specific end-states of existence. To test this notion, it is necessary to look at the specific significant values for each hypothesis category. For example, in the case of longevity, the values showing significance were: An Exciting Life, National Security, Independent, Happiness,

Family Security, and Courageous. Of these, four are terminal values (An Exciting Life, National Security, Happiness, and Family Security) and two are instrumental values (Independent and Courageous).

For the results relating to organizational level, the values showing significance were: A World at Peace, Happiness, Courageous, Imaginative, Social Recognition, Wisdom, Ambitious, and Independent. Of these values, four are terminal values (A World at Peace, Happiness, Social Recognition, and Wisdom) and four are instrumental values (Courageous, Imaginative, Ambitious, and Independent).

The findings that relate to interaction between longevity and organizational level show significant results for four values: A World at Peace, Salvation, Intellectual, and Logical. Of these, two are terminal values (A World at Peace and Salvation) and two are instrumental values (Intellectual and Logical).

Thus, the idea that instrumental values could be more easily gauged than terminal values is not sustained by the results of the study. In fact, the terminal values may have been slightly easier to estimate.

At this point, the commonalities between the values showing significance in the various categories should be highlighted. The following values were significant in both the longevity and organizational level dimension: Happiness, Courageous, and Independent. The value, A World at Peace, was

significant in both the organizational level and the interaction of longevity and organizational level dimensions. All other significant values were found in only a single category.

In summary, neither longevity, organizational level, nor the interaction of longevity and organizational level had a strong impact on abilities of subordinates to estimate their superiors' values. Several possible reasons were suggested for this finding. Additionally, the difference between the estimation of terminal versus instrumental values was not found to be a factor. Lastly, it was found that only four values were significant in more than one dimension. Next, the absolute means of the differences between attributed and actual values will be discussed.

ABSOLUTE MAGNITUDES OF THE MEAN DIFFERENCES AS AFFECTED BY LONGEVITY AND ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL

In this section, the results of the absolute magnitudes of the mean differences between the superiors' actual values and the values attributed to them by their subordinates are discussed. These results are categorized by longevity and by organizational level.

The intent in this part of the study was to determine whether the absolute differences between the actual and the estimated values decreased as either longevity or

organizational level increased. The effect of longevity on the absolute differences was tested through the use of correlation analysis. Simply, the correlation between an increase in longevity and a change in absolute mean differences was checked. The results showed that three values (Helpful, Imaginative, and Intellectual) were significantly related to longevity at the .05 level of significance. Two values (Logical and Self-controlled) were significantly related to longevity at the .01 level of significance. However, only Helpful and Imaginative were related in the hypothesized or negative fashion. The three other significantly related values showed a positive correlation. That is, as longevity of subordinates under superiors increased, the absolute magnitudes of the mean differences in actual versus estimated values also increased. In the opinion of the researcher, no adequate explanation can be made for this result. In any case, the principal result was that the hypothesized direction of effect was indicated in only two of the thirty-six values. Before discussing possible explanations of this finding the application of analysis of variance testing on organizational level results will be analyzed.

Analysis of variance on the absolute magnitudes of the mean differences by organizational level yielded only six significantly related values out of thirty-six. While this result is attributable to more than chance, it is not

strong enough to confirm the hypothesized effect.

The possible explanations for the results of correlation analysis and analysis of variance on the absolute magnitudes of the mean differences between actual and attributed values are much the same as discussed earlier for the mean differences. That is, managerial philosophies relating to maintenance of psychological distance; short-term superior-subordinate relationships due to hierarchical mobility; the process of stereotyping early in the subordinate's tenure under a superior; and the possible unsuitability of the Rokeach Value Survey for attributing values to individuals--all of these factors may possibly affect the degree to which a subordinate can estimate his superior's values.

It is appropriate here also to examine whether the results are materially different for the terminal values as compared to the instrumental values. Interestingly, the results of correlation analysis showed significant values only among the instrumental group. Thus, a definite bias toward the instrumental values is evident. For the analysis of variance results, however, the significant values were evenly split--three from the terminal group and three from the instrumental group.

In summation, neither an increase in longevity nor organizational level resulted in subordinates being able to better estimate their superiors' values. The possible

reasons for such findings were those discussed earlier in this chapter. Additionally, while the analysis of variance indicated an even split between significant values of both terminal and instrumental nature, the correlation analysis revealed a bias toward the instrumental values.

IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT

The hypotheses which formed the bases for this research revolved around the factors which affect the abilities of subordinates to accurately gauge their superiors' values. The assumption underlying the study was that conflict and tension between superior and subordinate would be less if the subordinate could fairly accurately estimate the nature of his superior's value system. What, then, are the implications of the study for organizational managers?

If, indeed, subordinates do not become better able to gauge their superiors' values through the process of acquaintanceship over time, then managers must assess the benefits to be gained from a formalized program to enhance a subordinate's knowledge of his superior. If it is felt that the benefits of knowledge of superior values are significant, some exchange of value profiles early in the superior-subordinate relationship may be appropriate.

Another important area to which managers might direct their attention is the impact of managerial style

on the acquaintanceship process. It may be that the behaviorally-oriented manager, through his more personal manner of dealing with subordinates, reveals much more of his value system than does the manager who maintains psychological distance. Thus, if an understanding of superiors' values is desirable for subordinates, the arguments for a behaviorally-oriented style of management receive additional support.

Attention should also be given to the initial stages of the superior-subordinate relationship. This indoctrination phase may involve the formation of stereotyped impressions and attitudes which resist later modification. Thus a premium must be put on close enough early contact between superior and subordinate so that accurate value perceptions are formed.

In summary, neither the longevity of a subordinate under a superior, nor their working at higher organizational levels, appears to improve the ability of a subordinate to accurately estimate his superior's values. Formal exchange of value profiles, changes in managerial philosophies, and emphasis on mutual understanding during the initial stage of the superior-subordinate relationship may result in reduced tension and conflict between superiors and subordinates.

SUMMARY

The objective of this study was to determine whether

the ability of subordinates to accurately estimate their superiors' values was significantly affected by: longevity of subordinate under superior; the organizational level at which the superior-subordinate pair was working; or the interaction between longevity and organizational level. In support of this objective the hypotheses shown in Chapter I were formulated. In Chapter IV the results of the study involving the testing of the hypotheses were presented.

The Effects of Longevity,
Organizational Level,
and Their Interaction

The effects of longevity, organizational level, and the interaction of longevity and organizational level on the difference between values attributed to superiors by subordinates and the superiors' actual values were examined by testing hypotheses one, two, and three. The results of this testing did not support these hypotheses. Apparently neither the length of tenure of a subordinate under a superior nor the organizational level at which the superior-subordinate pair is working materially affects the value estimation process.

The implication of these findings for organizational managers is that specific formal attempts to provide conditions for transfer of value knowledge from superior to subordinate should be provided. Specifically, exchange of

value profiles, modification of managerial style, and increased attention to initial indoctrination may be appropriate.

Impact of Longevity and
Organizational Level
on Value Estimation

Hypotheses four and five projected a possible relationship between the absolute magnitude of the difference between values attributed to superiors and the superiors' actual values, and increases in longevity and organizational level. Specifically, the absolute magnitudes of the mean differences were hypothesized to decline. The results of the study did not support these hypotheses. These findings are additional backing for the idea that mere exposure of two people to each other in the job environment does not necessarily result in the subordinate's getting to know his superior's values.

The implications of these results for managers are that more active efforts are necessary if a condition of accurate value perception in the superior-subordinate relationship is to be achieved. Specific suggestions have been presented earlier.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

As discussed earlier, the results of this study are limited both in scope and applicability. However, it is the only study known to the researcher which examines the value

attribution process between superiors and subordinates. Additional investigation is needed to examine more carefully the importance of values as well as the factors affecting knowledge of values in the superior-subordinate relationship.

In this study, the factors of longevity and organizational level did not appear to be related to accuracy of value estimation. Perhaps other factors are more closely related to this process. Further research should be performed to seek out the relevant factors.

Studies of superior-subordinate values in other types of organizations are needed. This investigation only involved public sector organizations. Superior-subordinate interaction may possibly vary in some significant ways both in private sector organizations as well as other public sector ones.

Further studies are needed to validate the use of the Rokeach Value Survey for applications involving individual value attribution. Other instruments may be more appropriate for this purpose.

Finally, this investigation only concerned upward value estimation, i.e. the subordinate's estimate of his superior's values. Future studies might examine the relationship from the opposite direction, i.e. the superior's ability to estimate his subordinates' values.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE A

SUPERIOR QUESTIONNAIRE*

PART I

1. AGE: _____ 2. SEX (Check): Male _____ Female _____
3. How long have you worked in the public sector? _____
4. Have you previously worked in the private sector? _____
If yes, how long? _____
5. What is your name? _____

PART II

Part II of the survey asks your opinion of the importance of various qualities. While all of the qualities listed are likely to be important to you to some extent, we would like to know which are of great importance and which are of little importance.

*Permission granted by Dr. Milton Rokeach for use of this modified form of the Rokeach Value Survey.

INSTRUCTIONS

For each statement listed, please indicate how important it is to you by circling the appropriate number. If it's of "Little Importance," circle "1" or if it's of "Great Importance," circle "7." If your opinion falls somewhere in between, circle the appropriate number.

Here is how to rate the importance of each quality.

Read down the list to form a first impression of the relative importance of each quality. This is very important because it will help you decide which qualities are of most importance to you.

Next, rate each quality by circling the number which most closely describes your importance rating. The example below for the quality "Broadminded" will show you how to do this.

If you believe that being broadminded is of great importance and of major concern, you should circle as follows:

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE								OF GREAT IMPORTANCE
Broadminded (open minded).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

If you believe that being broadminded is of little importance and of little concern to you so long as minimum standards are met, you should circle as follows:

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE							OF GREAT IMPORTANCE
Broadminded (open minded).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

However, you may believe that being broadminded is neither of great importance (major concern) nor of little importance (little concern) but somewhere in the middle. In this case, you would circle one of the numbers between those circled above which most closely defines your feelings of importance for the quality.

NOW, PLEASE CONTINUE:

1. Listed below are several qualities of life. Please read down the following list of qualities to form a first impression of the relative importance of each quality. Then rate how important each of these general qualities of life is to you by circling the appropriate number. Circle one number for each quality according to the instructions you have just read. CAUTION: Remember, not all qualities will be of equal importance to you.

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE				OF GREAT IMPORTANCE			
A comfortable life (a prosperous life)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
A world at peace (free of war and conflict)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Freedom (independence, free choice).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Happiness (contentedness)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
National security (protection from attack)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Salvation (saved, eternal life) . .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Social recognition (respect, admiration)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
True friendship (close companionship)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Family security (taking care of loved ones)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE							OF GREAT IMPORTANCE						
Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Self-respect (self-esteem)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							

2. Listed below are several characteristics of people. Please read down the following list of characteristics to form a first impression of the relative importance of each. Then rate how important each of these general characteristics of people is to you by circling the appropriate number. Circle one number for each characteristic according to the instructions you have just read. CAUTION: Remember, not all characteristics will be of equal importance to you.

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE							OF GREAT IMPORTANCE						
Ambitious (hard-working, aspiring)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Broadminded (open-minded)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Capable (competent, effective)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Clean (neat, tidy)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Forgiving (willing to pardon others)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Helpful (working for the welfare of others)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Honest (sincere, truthful)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Imaginative (daring, creative)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE				OF GREAT IMPORTANCE			
Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Logical (consistent, rational)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Loving (affectionate, tender)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Obedient (dutiful, respectful)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Polite (courteous, well-mannered) . .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Responsible (dependable, reliable) . .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

QUESTIONNAIRE B

SUBORDINATE QUESTIONNAIRE*

PART I

1. AGE: _____ 2. SEX (Check): Male _____ Female _____
3. How long have you known your immediate superior? _____
4. How long have you worked directly under your immediate superior? _____
5. How long have you worked in the public sector? _____
6. Have you previously worked in the private sector? _____
If yes, how long? _____
7. Do you interact with your superior on a social basis? _____
8. What is your immediate superior's name? _____

PART II

Part II asks you to rate a number of qualities as you feel your immediate superior would rate them. While all of the qualities listed are likely to be important to your immediate superior to some extent, we would like to know which are of great importance and which are of little importance. NOTE: Please do not be frustrated if you don't feel that you have a good notion how your superior might feel about some of the concepts. Just make the best estimate you can.

*Permission granted by Dr. Milton Rokeach for use of this modified form of the Rokeach Value Survey.

INSTRUCTIONS

For each statement listed, please indicate how important it is to your superior by circling the appropriate number. If it's of "Little Importance," circle "1" or if it's of "Great Importance," circle "7." If your opinion falls somewhere in between, circle the appropriate number.

Here is how to rate the importance of each quality:

Read down the list to form a first impression of the relative importance of each quality. This is very important because it will help you decide which qualities are of most importance to your superior.

Next, rate each quality by circling the number which you feel most closely describes your superior's importance rating. The example below for the quality "Broadminded" will show you how to do this.

If you believe that being broadminded is of great importance and of major concern to your superior, you should circle as follows:

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE									OF GREAT IMPORTANCE
Broadminded (open minded)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

If you believe that being broadminded is of little importance and of little concern to your superior so long as minimum standards are met, you should circle as follows:

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE									OF GREAT IMPORTANCE
Broadminded (open minded)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

However, you may believe that being broadminded is neither of great importance (major concern) nor of little importance (little concern) but somewhere in the middle. In this case, you would circle one of the numbers between those circled above which most closely defines your superior's feelings of importance for the quality.

NOW, PLEASE CONTINUE:

1. Listed below are several qualities of life. Please read down the following list of qualities to form a first impression of the relative importance of each quality. Then rate how important each of these general qualities of life is to your superior by circling the appropriate number. Circle one number for each quality according to the instructions you have just read. CAUTION: Remember, not all qualities will be of equal importance to your superior.

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE				OF GREAT IMPORTANCE			
A comfortable life (a prosperous life)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
An exciting life (a stimulating, active life)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
A world at peace (free of war and conflict)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Equality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Freedom (independence, free choice).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Happiness (contentedness)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
National security (protection from attack)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Pleasure (an enjoyable, leisurely life)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Salvation (saved, eternal life) . .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Social recognition (respect, admiration)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
True friendship (close companionship)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Wisdom (a mature understanding of life)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
A world of beauty (beauty of nature and the arts)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Family security (taking care of loved ones)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE							OF GREAT IMPORTANCE						
Mature love (sexual and spiritual intimacy)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Self-respect (self-esteem)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
A sense of accomplishment (lasting contribution)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Inner harmony (freedom from inner conflict)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							

2. Listed below are several characteristics of people. Please read down the following list of characteristics to form a first impression of the relative importance of each. Then rate how important each of these general characteristics of people is to your superior by circling the appropriate number. Circle one number for each characteristic according to the instructions you have just read. CAUTION: Remember, not all characteristics will be of equal importance to your superior.

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE							OF GREAT IMPORTANCE						
Ambitious (hard-working, aspiring)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Broadminded (open-minded)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Capable (competent, effective)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Cheerful (lighthearted, joyful)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Clean (neat, tidy)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Courageous (standing up for your beliefs)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Forgiving (willing to pardon others)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Helpful (working for the welfare of others)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
Honest (sincere, truthful)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							

	OF LITTLE IMPORTANCE				OF GREAT IMPORTANCE			
Imaginative (daring, creative)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Independent (self-reliant, self-sufficient)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Intellectual (intelligent, reflective)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Logical (consistent, rational) . .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Loving (affectionate, tender) . .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Obedient (dutiful, respectful) . .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Polite (courteous, well-mannered) .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Responsible (dependable, reliable)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Self-controlled (restrained, self-disciplined)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

VITA

James Donald Powell was born in Quanah, Texas, on September 28, 1941. He is the son of William Lee Powell and Rheba Rhea Powell.

He attended grade school in Bellevue, Texas, and high school in Lockett, Texas. He received a Bachelor of Business Administration degree from North Texas State University in 1962 and a Master of Business Administration degree from Ohio State University in 1967.

James Donald Powell was an instructor in the Department of Management at East Texas State University from 1970 to 1971. He was a teaching assistant in the Department of Management at Louisiana State University from 1971 to 1973. He was an assistant professor in the Department of Management at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas from 1974 to 1977.

EXAMINATION AND THESIS REPORT

Candidate: James Donald Powell

Major Field: Management

Title of Thesis: Actual Versus Attributed Values in the Superior- Subordinate Relatio

Approved:

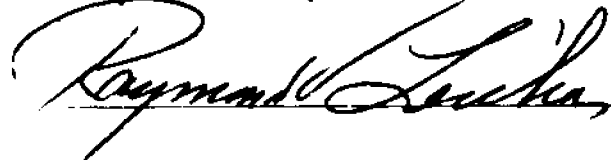


Major Professor and Chairman



Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:



Date of Examination:

March 21, 1977